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# CRITICAL REVIEW.

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For the Month of *August*, 1781.

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*Prefaces biographical and critical to the Works of the English Poets.*  
By Samuel Johnson, LL.D. Vol. V, VI, VII, VIII, IX,  
and X. *small 8vo.* Printed for the principal Booksellers.  
[Concluded.]

THESE volumes are a continuation, of a most learned and ingenious work, of which we gave an account in a former volume \*, and complete the elegant edition of English poets published by the Booksellers of London.

The character both of the author and his performance are already too well known and established in the republic of letters, to make any farther recommendation necessary; it may be sufficient, therefore, to observe, that in these Lives of the Poets we meet with the same critical penetration and sagacity, the same accurate knowledge of men and manners, judicious reflections, nervous style, and manly sentiments, that distinguished the former volumes.—This part of the work is, at the same time, more interesting, as it contains the lives, and displays the characters, of persons living nearly in our own times; and whom some of us were, perhaps, personally acquainted with, Pope, Swift, Gay, Thomson, Young, Collins, Gray, Dyer, Akenfide, &c.—Amongst these, the life of the celebrated Dr. Young is not written by Dr. Johnson, but by a gentleman, who, the Dr. informs us, had better information concerning it than he

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\* See Crit. Rev. vol. xlvii. p. 354, 450.

could obtain.—We could have wished, however, that Mr. Herbert Croft, of Lincoln's-Inn, who writes this life for his friend Dr. Johnson, had himself received more information, with regard both to the public and private character of Dr. Young, than we here meet with.

'Of the domestic manners and petty habits (says Mr. Croft) of the author of the *Night Thoughts*, I hoped to have given you an account from the best authority;—but who shall dare to say, To-morrow I will be wise or virtuous, or to-morrow I will do a particular thing? Upon enquiring for his housekeeper, I learned that she was buried two days before I reached the town of her abode.'

Mr. Croft, we observe, has taken no small pains to vindicate the character of Dr. Young's son, (a worthy man, and, we believe, now living) from the misrepresentations of the *Biographia Britannica*, which, he tells us,

'Not satisfied with pointing out the son of Young, in that son's life-time, as his father's Lorenzo, travels out of its way into the history of the son, and tells of his having been forbidden his college at Oxford for misbehaviour, and of his long labouring under the displeasure of his father. How such anecdotes, were they true, tend to illustrate the Life of Young, it is not easy to discover. If the son of the author of the *Night Thoughts* was indeed forbidden his college for a time at one of our universities, the author of *Paradise Lost* was disgracefully ejected from the other, with the additional indignity of public corporal correction. From juvenile follies who is free? Were nature to indulge the son of Young with a second youth, and to leave him at the same time the experience of that which is past, he would probably pass it differently (who would not?); he would certainly be the occasion of less uneasiness to his father;—but, from the same experience, he would as certainly be treated in a different manner by his father. Young was a poet; poets (with reverence be it spoken) do not make the best parents. Fancy and imagination seldom deign to stoop from their heights; always stoop unwillingly to the low level of common duties. Aloof from vulgar life, they pursue their rapid flight beyond the ken of mortals, and descend not to earth but when obliged by necessity. The prose of ordinary occurrences is beneath the dignity of poetry. Yet the son of Young would almost sooner, I know, pass for a Lorenzo, than see himself vindicated, at the expence of his father's memory, from follies which, if it was blameable in a boy to have committed them, it is surely praise worthy in a man to lament, and certainly not only unnecessary but cruel in a biographer to record.'

This



This extract, our readers will observe, is not very favourable to Dr. Young.—Poets, Mr. Croft tells us, ‘do not make the best parents:’ we cannot, however, subscribe to the truth of this observation, as no satisfactory reason can, perhaps, be assigned why poets should not be as good parents as other men.—This gentleman informs us, that Philander and Narcissa, in the Night Thoughts, are Mr. and Mrs. Temple; and that the poet seems to dwell with more melancholy on *their* deaths than that of his *wife*.

In justice to Mr. Croft it is necessary to observe, that he has endeavoured to assimilate his part of the work with the rest, by a careful and studious imitation of Dr. Johnson's style and manner, which he seems to have hit off with some degree of success.

Our readers, however, are, by this time, we suppose, rather impatient for an extract from the great biographer himself. In a work of this nature, where every part has nearly an equal share of merit, it is difficult to select those which may lay claim to our superior admiration. If a preference, however, must be given, we should bestow it on the lives of Pope, Addison, and Thomson, which seem to have been written *con amore*, and to shine in this collection with peculiar lustre.

The following character of Addison, which we find at the conclusion of his life, is equally just and delicate.

‘As a describer of life and manners, he must be allowed to stand perhaps the first of the first rank. His humour, which, as Steele observes, is peculiar to himself, is so happily diffused as to give the grace of novelty to domestick scenes and daily occurrences. He never outsteps the modesty of nature, nor raises merriment or wonder by the violation of truth. His figures neither divert by distortion, nor amaze by aggravation. He copies life with so much fidelity, that he can be hardly said to invent; yet his exhibitions have an air so much original, that it is difficult to suppose them not merely the product of imagination.

‘As a teacher of wisdom he may be confidently followed. His religion has nothing in it enthusiastick or superstitious: he appears neither weakly credulous nor wantonly sceptical; his morality is neither dangerously lax, nor impracticably rigid. All the enchantment of fancy and all the cogency of argument are employed to recommend to the reader his real interest, the care of pleasing the author of his being. Truth is shewn sometimes as the phantom of a vision, sometimes appears half-veiled in an allegory: sometimes attracts regard in the robes of fancy, and sometimes steps forth in the confidence of reason. She wears a thousand dresses, and in all is pleasing.

‘Mille habet ornatus, mille decenter habet.

‘ His prose is the model of the middle stile ; on grave subjects not formal, on light occasions not grovelling ; pure without scrupulosity, and exact without apparent elaboration ; always equable, and always easy, without glowing words or pointed sentences. Addison never deviates from his track to snatch a grace ; he seeks no ambitious ornaments, and tries no hazardous innovations. His page is always luminous, but never blazes in unexpected splendour.

‘ It seems to have been his principal endeavour to avoid all harshness and severity of diction ; he is therefore sometimes verbose in his transitions and connections, and sometimes descends too much to the language of conversation ; yet if his language had been less idiomatical, it might have lost somewhat of its genuine Anglicism. What he attempted, he performed ; he is never feeble, and he did not wish to be energetick ; he is never rapid, and he never stagnates. His sentences have neither studied amplitude, nor affected brevity : his periods, though not diligently rounded, are voluble and easy. Whoever wishes to attain an English stile, familiar but not coarse, and elegant but not ostentatious, must give his days and nights to the volumes of Addison.’

To this we will subjoin what our author has said of that amiable man and excellent poet, James Thomson.

‘ Thomson, (says Dr. Johnson) as a writer, is entitled to one praise of the highest kind ; his mode of thinking, and of expressing his thoughts, is original. His blank verse is no more the blank verse of Milton, or of any other poet, than the rhymes of Prior are the rhymes of Cowley. His numbers, his pauses, his diction, are of his own growth, without transcription, without imitation. He thinks in a peculiar train, and he thinks always as a man of genius ; he looks round on Nature and on Life, with the eye which Nature bestows only on a poet ; the eye that distinguishes, in every thing presented to its view, whatever there is on which imagination can delight to be detained, and with a mind that at once comprehends the vast, and attends to the minute. The reader of the Seasons wonders that he never saw before what Thomson shows him, and that he never yet has felt what Thomson impresses.

‘ His is one of the works in which blank verse seems properly used ; Thomson’s wide expansion of general views, and his enumeration of circumstantial varieties, would have been obstructed and embarrassed by the frequent intersections of the sense, which are necessary effects of rhyme.

‘ His descriptions of extended scenes and general effects bring before us the whole magnificence of Nature, whether pleasing or dreadful. The gaiety of Spring, the splendour of Summer, the tranquillity of Autumn, and the horror of Winter, take in their turns possession of the mind. The poet leads us through the appearances of things as they are successively varied by the



vicissitudes of the year, and imparts to us so much of his own enthusiasm, that our thoughts expand with his imagery, and kindle with his sentiments. Nor is the naturalist without his part in the entertainment; for he is assisted to recollect and to combine, to arrange his discoveries, and to amplify the sphere of his contemplation.

‘The great defect of the Seasons is want of method; but for this I know not that there was any remedy. Of many appearances subsisting all at once, no rule can be given why one should be mentioned before another; yet the memory wants the help of order, and the curiosity is not excited by suspense or expectation.

‘His diction is in the highest degree florid and luxuriant, such as may be said to be to his images and thoughts both their lustre and their shade; such as invests them with splendour, through which perhaps they are not always easily discerned. It is too exuberant, and sometimes may be charged with filling the ear more than the mind.

‘These Poems, with which I was acquainted at their first appearance, I have since found altered and enlarged by subsequent revisals, as the author supposed his judgement to grow more exact, and as books or conversation extended his knowledge and opened his prospects. They are, I think, improved in general; yet I know not whether they have not lost part of what Temple calls their race; a word which, applied to wines, in its primitive sense, means the flavour of the soil.’

This criticism is elegant, candid, and judicious; the praise bestowed is not (as praises often are) vague, general, and indiscriminate, but founded on true taste and reason; nor is the censure less just.

Though Dr. Johnson's critical determinations will always be received with deference and respect, we much doubt whether they will be implicitly submitted to with regard to that great favourite of the ladies Matthew Prior, whom our biographer seems to have placed in a lower scale of merit than is generally allotted to him. — Of this poet, Dr. Johnson has taken the liberty to say, that his love-verses are not dictated by nature, and have neither gallantry nor tenderness; that his mythological allusions are despicable; and that when he tries to act the lover without the help of his gods and goddesses, his thoughts are unaffecting or remote; that his *Henry and Emma* is a dull tedious dialogue.

‘His Poem (says our author) on the Battle of Ramilies is necessarily tedious by the form of the stanza: an uniform mass of ten lines, thirty-five times repeated, inconsequential and

slightly connected, must weary both the ear and the understanding. His imitation of Spenser, which consists principally in *I ween* and *I weet*, without exclusion of later modes of speech, makes his poem neither ancient nor modern. His mention of Mars and Bellona, and his comparison of Marlborough to the Eagle that bears the thunder of Jupiter, are all puerile and un-affecting; and yet more despicable is the long tale told by Lewis in his despair, of Brute and Troynovante, and the teeth of Cadmus, with his similes of the raven and eagle, and wolf and lion. By the help of such easy fictions, and vulgar topicks, without acquaintance with life, and without knowledge of art or nature, a poem of any length, cold and lifeless like this, may be easily written on any subject.

He tells us afterwards, that Prior's Alma has no plan, and that his Solomon is tedious and uninteresting; and that whatever he claims above mediocrity, seems the effort of struggle and of toil.

‘He has (says he) many vigorous but few happy lines; he has every thing by purchase, and nothing by gift; he had no nightly visitations of the Muse, no infusions of sentiment or felicities of fancy.’

The legality of this severe sentence against poor Matt. will probably be disputed in the court of criticism by some of his warm friends and admirers.—We shall not, however, enter into the contention, but proceed to observe, that our biographical legislator, in another part of this work, has again boldly steered against the tide of popular opinion, by calling in question the transcendent excellence of our modern Pindar, Mr. Gray, whom he has dethroned and degraded, in the following terms.

‘Gray's Poetry (says he) is now to be considered; and I hope not to be looked on as an enemy to his name, if I confess that I contemplate it with less pleasure than his life.

‘His ode on Spring has something poetical, both in the language and the thought; but the language is too luxuriant, and the thoughts have nothing new. There has of late arisen a practice of giving to adjectives, derived from substantives, the termination of participles; such as the *cultured* plain, the *dashed* bank; but I was sorry to see, in the lines of a scholar like Gray, the *bonied* Spring. The morality is natural, but too stale; the conclusion is pretty.

‘The poem on the Cat was doubtless by its author considered as a trifle, but it is not a happy trifle. In the first stanza *the azure flowers that blow*, shew resolutely a rhyme is sometimes made when it cannot easily be found. Selima, the Cat, is called a nymph, with some violence both to language and sense.



sense; but there is good use made of it when it is done; for of the two lines,

“What female heart can gold despise?  
What cat's averse to fish!”

the first relates merely to the nymph, and the second only to the cat. The sixth stanza contains a melancholy truth, that *a favourite has no friend*; but the last ends in a pointed sentence of no relation to the purpose; if *what glistered* had been *gold*, the cat would not have gone into the water; and, if she had, would not less have been drowned.

‘The *Prospect of Eaton College* suggests nothing to Gray, which every beholder does not equally think and feel. His supplication to father Thames, to tell him who drives the hoop or tosses the ball, is useless and puerile. Father Thames has no better means of knowing than himself. His epithet *buxom health* is not elegant; he seems not to understand the word. Gray thought his language more poetical as it was more remote from common use: finding in Dryden *honey redolent of Spring*, an expression that reaches the utmost limits of our language, Gray drove it a little more beyond common apprehension, by making *gales* to be *redolent of joy and youth*.

‘Of the *Ode on Adversity*, the hint was at first taken from *O Diva, gratum quæ regis Antium*; but Gray has excelled his original by the variety of his sentiments, and by their moral application. Of this piece, at once poetical and rational, I will not by slight objections violate the dignity.

‘My process has now brought me to the *wonderful wonder of wonders*, the two Sister Odes; by which, though either vulgar ignorance or common sense at first universally rejected them, many have been since persuaded to think themselves delighted. I am one of those that are willing to be pleased, and therefore would gladly find the meaning of the first stanza of the *Progress of Poetry*.

‘Gray seems in his rapture to confound the images of *spreading sound* and *running water*. A *stream of musick* may be allowed; but where does *musick*, however *smooth and strong*, after having visited the *verdant vales*, *rowl down the steep amain*, so as that *rocks and nodding groves rebel low to the roar*? If this be said of *musick*, it is nonsense; if it be said of *water*, it is nothing to the purpose.

‘The second stanza, exhibiting Mars's car and Jove's eagle, is unworthy of farther notice. Criticism disdains to chase a school-boy to his common places.

‘To the third it may likewise be objected, that it is drawn from mythology, though such as may be more easily assimilated to real life. *Idalia's velvet-green* has something of cant. An epithet or metaphor drawn from nature ennobles art; an epithet or metaphor drawn from art degrades nature. Gray is too fond of words arbitrarily compounded. *Many-twinkling* was formerly

censured as not analogical; we may say *many-spotted*, but scarcely *many-spotting*. This stanza, however, has something pleasing.

‘ Of the second ternary of stanzas, the first endeavours to tell something, and would have told it, had it not been crossed by Hyperion: the second describes well enough the universal prevalence of poetry; but I am afraid that the conclusion will not rise from the premises. The caverns of the North and the plains of Chili are not the residences of *Glory* and *generous Shame*. But that poetry and virtue go always together is an opinion so pleasing, that I can forgive him who resolves to think it true.

‘ The third stanza sounds big with *Delpbi*, and *Egean*, and *Ilissus*, and *Meander*, and *hallowed fountain* and *solemn sound*; but in all Gray’s odes there is a kind of cumbrous splendor which we wish away. His position is at last false; in the time of Dante and Petrarch, from whom he derives our first school of Poetry, Italy was over-run by *tyrant power* and *coward vice*; nor was our state much better when we first borrowed the Italian arts.

‘ Of the third ternary, the first gives a mythological birth of Shakspeare. What is said of that mighty genius is true; but it is not said happily: the real effects of his poetical power are put out of sight by the pomp of machinery. Where truth is sufficient to fill the mind, fiction is worse than useless; the counterfeit debases the genuine.

‘ His accounts of Milton’s blindness, if we suppose it caused by study in the formation of his poem, a supposition surely allowable, is poetically true, and happily imagined. But the *car* of Dryden, with his *two coursers*, has nothing in it peculiar; it is a car in which any other rider may be placed.

‘ The Bard appears, at the first view, to be, as Algarotti and others have remarked, an imitation of the Prophecy of Nereus. Algarotti thinks it superior to its original; and, if preference depends only on the imagery and animation of the two poems, his judgement is right. There is in the Bard more force, more thought, and more variety. But to copy is less than to invent, and the copy has been unhappily produced at a wrong time. The fiction of Horace was to the Romans credible; but its revival disgusts us with apparent and unconquerable falsehood, *Incredulus odi*.

‘ To select a singular event, and swell it to a giant’s bulk by fabulous appendages of spectres and predictions, has little difficulty, for he that forsakes the probable may always find the marvellous; and it has little use, we are affected only as we believe; we are improved only as we find something to be imitated or declined. I do not see that the Bard promotes any truth, moral or political.

‘ His stanzas are too long, especially his epodes; the ode is finished before the ear has learned its measures, and consequent-  
ly



ly before it can receive pleasure from their consonance and recurrence.

Dr. Johnson then enters into a minute examination of the several stanzas of the Bard, and concludes his criticism on the Odes by observing that they

‘ Are marked by glittering accumulations of ungraceful ornaments ; they strike rather than please ; the images are magnified by affectation ; the language is laboured into harshness. The mind of the writer seems to work with unnatural violence. *Double, double, toil and trouble.* He has a kind of strutting dignity, and is tall by walking on tiptoe. His art and his struggle are too visible, and there is too little appearance of ease or nature.

Whether the whole of this free censure is strictly just and well founded, we will not pretend to determine. Certain it is, however, at least in our opinion, that no man ever acquired a high reputation at so easy a rate, or received such *great wages* for so *little work*, as Mr. Gray.—On his Elegy in a Country Church-Yard, we agree with Dr. Johnson, that too much praise cannot well be lavished ; at the same time we think with him, that Gray's Odes, as well as his other little performances, have been much over-rated. The reputation of a poet in this country is, indeed, a matter very fluctuating and uncertain. Whilst he lives, and perhaps many years afterwards, a proper and unbiassed judgment of his real merit is seldom found. It is a long time before whim and caprice, prejudice and partiality subside ; and the true character is not often ascertained, till that of the man is entirely forgotten. Gray has been placed by his sanguine admirers by the side of Dryden and Pope. Dr. Johnson seems to have levelled him with the minor bards of a much inferior rank : half a century hence he may, perhaps, be fixed in his right and proper station,

‘ Behind the foremost, and before the last.’

In the mean time, as the twig inclined too much one way, we are obliged to Dr. Johnson for bending strongly towards the other, which may make it strait at last.

We cannot dismiss this article without congratulating the public, on the extraordinary pains and industry which our excellent biographer has bestowed on the life of Pope. Much more is said of *him*, (though not more than he deserves) than of any other writer : every part of his character is delineated with the greatest accuracy, and every part of his writings criticised by the nice hand of taste, judgment, and impartiality. What is  
said

said of Pope's Letters is so just and sensible, that we cannot withhold from our readers the following quotation.

‘Of his social qualities (says Dr. Johnson), if an estimate be made from his Letters, an opinion too favourable cannot easily be formed; they exhibit a perpetual and unclouded effulgence of general benevolence, and particular fondness. There is nothing but liberality, gratitude, constancy, and tenderness. It has been so long said as to be commonly believed, that the true characters of men may be found in their letters, and that he who writes to his friend lays his heart open before him. But the truth is, that such were simple friendships of the golden age, and are now the friendships only of children. Very few can boast of hearts which they dare lay open to themselves, and of which, by whatever accident exposed, they do not shun a distinct and continued view; and, certainly, what we hide from ourselves we do not shew to our friends. There is, indeed, no transaction which offers stronger temptations to fallacy and sophistication than epistolary intercourse. In the eagerness of conversation the first emotions of the mind often burst out, before they are considered; in the tumult of business, interest and passion have their genuine effect; but a friendly letter is a calm and deliberate performance, in the cool of leisure, in the stillness of solitude, and surely no man sits down to depreciate by design his own character.

‘Friendship has no tendency to secure veracity; for by whom can a man so much wish to be thought better than he is, as by him whose kindness he desires to gain or keep? Even in writing to the world there is less constraint; the author is not confronted with his reader, and takes his chance of approbation among the different dispositions of mankind; but a letter is addressed to a single mind, of which the prejudices and partialities are known; and must therefore please, if not by favouring them, by forbearing to oppose them.

‘To charge those favourable representations, which every man gives of himself, with the guilt of hypocritical falshood, would show more severity than knowledge. The writer commonly believes himself. Almost every man's thoughts, while they are general, are right; and most hearts are pure, while temptation is away. It is easy to awaken generous sentiments in privacy; to despise death when there is no danger; to glow with benevolence when there is nothing to be given. While such ideas are formed they are felt, and self-love does not suspect the gleam of virtue to be the meteor of fancy.

‘If the Letters of Pope are considered merely as compositions, they seem to be premeditated and artificial. It is one thing to write because there is something which the mind wishes to discharge; and another, to solicit the imagination because ceremony or vanity requires something to be written. Pope confesses his early Letters to be vitiated with *affectedness and ambition*: to know whether he disentangled himself from these perversers



verters of epistolary integrity, his book and his life must be set in comparison.'

These observations are the result of good sense, and a knowledge of mankind, and may be useful by cautioning us against forming any decisive opinion of real characters merely from the letters of our friends; for, as Dr. Johnson very properly observes,

'In the Letters both of Swift and Pope there appears such narrowness of mind, as makes them insensible of any excellence that has not some affinity with their own, and confines their esteem and approbation to so small a number, that whoever should form his opinion of the age from their representation, would suppose them to have lived amidst ignorance and barbarity, unable to find among their contemporaries either virtue or intelligence, and persecuted by those that could not understand them.'

In that part of the life of Pope, where mention is made of his friend bishop Warburton, we meet with the character of that learned and ingenious prelate, which is drawn, as our readers will see, by a masterly hand; and which, we think, might stand with propriety at the head of his works, in all future editions of them.

'About this time (says our author) Warburton began to make his appearance in the first ranks of learning. He was a man of vigorous faculties, a mind fervid and vehement, supplied by incessant and unlimited enquiry, with wonderful extent and variety of knowledge, which yet had not oppressed his imagination, nor clouded his perspicacity. To every work he brought a memory full fraught with a fancy fertile of original combinations, and at once exerted the powers of the scholar, the reasoner, and the wit. But his knowledge was too multifarious to be always exact, and his pursuits were too eager to be always cautious. His abilities gave him an haughty confidence, which he disdained to conceal or mollify; and his impatience of opposition disposed him to treat his adversaries with such contemptuous superiority as made his readers commonly his enemies, and excited against him the wishes of some who favoured his cause. He seems to have adopted the Roman Emperor's determination, *oderint dum metuant*; he used no allurements of gentle language, but wished to compel rather than persuade.

'His style is copious without selection, and forcible without neatness; he took the words that presented themselves: his diction is coarse and impure, and his sentences are unmeasured.'

In a page or two beyond this, Dr. Johnson tells us, that Warburton was obliged to Pope for introducing him to Mr. Allen, 'who gave him his niece and his estate, and by consequence

quence a bishopric.'—Here we believe Dr. Johnson has attributed more power and influence to Allen than he ever possessed; as Warburton's preferment, we have always understood, did not arise from his succeeding to Allen's estate, but to his own literary merit, which was taken notice of and rewarded by lord Chatham, then Mr. Pitt and prime minister, who made him a bishop.

The comparison drawn between Pope and Dryden, which our readers will find towards the conclusion of his life (too long to be here inserted) is finely executed, and the merits of the two writers excellently discriminated. The beauties of Pope's Essay on Criticism are judiciously illustrated; and the Rape of the Lock honoured with that praise and admiration which it so justly deserves.—The translation of Homer has, perhaps, great as it is, more than a sufficient portion of commendation bestowed upon it by our sagacious critic, who endeavours strenuously to defend Pope against those who objected that his version of Homer was not Homeric; that it exhibits not any resemblance of his original and characteristic manner, and wants his artless grandeur and unaffected majesty.

'To a thousand cavils (says Dr. Johnson) one answer is sufficient; the purpose of a writer is to be read, and the criticism which would destroy the power of pleasing must be blown aside. Pope wrote for his own age and his own nation: he knew that it was necessary to colour the images and point the sentiments of his author; he therefore made him graceful, but lost him some of his sublimity.'

Here what our author has urged does by no means remove the objection. Allowing all Pope's merit, it is certainly possible to produce a better and more faithful translation of Homer than he has given us; but it must be in blank verse, which is more suitable to the nature of an epic poem: though, after all, we believe with Dr. Johnson, that such a translation would not have so many readers.

The quotations above given, and the remarks already made, renders it almost needless to say what justice demands of us, that this performance is one of the most acute, agreeable, and entertaining works that has passed under our inspection: and we lament that the collection is not larger, as we should then have had more lives of the English poets by Dr. Johnson.



*The Journey to Snowdon.* 4to. 10s. 6d. boards. White.

THIS is a continuation of a *Tour to Wales* \* by Mr. Pennant, a gentleman well known in the literary world by his account of Scotland, and other ingenious performances. As Wales is a part of the kingdom abounding in the finest prospects, and most beautiful scenery, and where nature appears in all her sublimity and magnificence, affording, at the same time, an ample field for the curiosity of the naturalist, and food sufficient for the antiquary, an accurate description of it cannot but be acceptable to the public, especially when given by so careful an observer as Mr. Pennant, who has omitted nothing which the information of preceding writers, or which oral or traditional knowledge could procure with regard to every place through which he passed, and every person or circumstance which he has occasion to mention. To a native of this country, whose honest prejudices warmly interest him in every thing that concerns it, the work before us must be doubly agreeable, as the author who is himself, we believe, both a native and inhabitant, takes every opportunity, in his relation of different occurrences, to celebrate the virtues of his countrymen. If the reader, indeed, has not some knowledge of Welch, he will not so well relish the beauties of it. A mere Englishman would even sometimes be puzzled to decypher the following formidable letters,

BWLCH OER —DDRWS,

which, notwithstanding, form the running title of page 16, with several others equally illegible.

Impartiality obliges us here to remark, that there is not that ease, terseness, and perspicuity in the style of this performance which we could wish to have met with; the facts and occurrences recounted, and the observations made, are not well ranged and digested; add to this, that the diary-manner in which the narrative of the Journey is continued, has something very awkward and uncouth in it.

‘Return along the ridge of the hill—see beneath me the little church of Gwaen-ysher—descend to the church and village Llanasa—quit the turnpike road on the left—ford the Wheler, and after crossing the Clwyd, reach Llewinni, &c.’ This method of reciting what happened, may be useful in a memorandum book, and of service to travellers who are to go the same road; but a frequent repetition of it in a printed book, is rather tedious and disgusting. We mean

\* See Crit. Rev. vol. xlv. p. 268.

not, however, by this remark, to derogate from the general merit and utility of this performance, which is, upon the whole, considered as part of a history of the country, both instructive and entertaining, as our readers will perceive by the following extracts, which we have selected as some of the most striking and agreeable.

\* In the year 1572, says our author, the resiant burgeses who are voters for a member for the borough of Denbigh, had the courage to withstand the insinuations, the promises, and the threats, of as unprincipled a lord as this kingdom was ever afflicted with; who had power to inflict, and will to execute, any vengeance that opposition to his arbitrary inclinations might excite. In that year it was his pleasure that one Henry Dynne should represent this borough in parlement; the burgeses were refractory, and chose another person; which gave rise to the following letter, which I print, as a *sans pareille*.

\* A lre sent from the earl of Leicester to the bayliffe, aldermen, and burgeses, greatlie blaminge them for making choise of the burges of the parliament without his lordship's consente, and commanding them to allter their electione, and to chose Henrie Dynne.

\* I have bene latlie advertised how small consideration youe have had of the lre I wrote unto you, for the nomynation of yo' burgeses, whereat as I cannot but greatlie mervayle (in respect I am yo' l. and you my tenaunts, as also the manie good tournes and comodities wch I have bene allwayes willinge to procure youe, for the benefitte of yo' whole state) so do I take the same in so---, and vill yte so unthankfullie, as yf youe do not uppon receite hereof presentlie revoke the same, and appointe suche one as I shall nominate, namelie, Henrie Dynne, be ye well assured never to loke for any ffriendshipe or favo' at my hande, in any yo' affayres hereafter; not for any great accompt I make of the thinge, but for that I would not it shou'd be thought that I have so small regard borne me at yo' hands, who are bounden to owe (as yo' L.) thus much dutie as to know myne advice and pleasure; that will haplie be alegded, that yo' choice was made before the receipt of my lre (in relie I would litle have thoughte that youe would have bene so forgetfull, or rather carelesse of me, as before yo' election not to make me privie therto, or at the least to have some desire of myne advise therein (having tyme ynoughe so to do) but as you have of yo' selves thus rashlie proceded herein, without myne assent, soe have I thought good to signifie unto youe, that I mean not to take it in any wise at yo' hands, and therefore wysh you more advisedlie to consider hereof, and to deale with me as maye continue my fav' towards you, otherwise loke for no fav' at my hands: and so fare ye well. From the court, this last day of April, 1572.

R. LEYCESTER.

\* This



\* This doughty letter had no effect: the burgesſes adhered to their own choice, and Richard Candishe, gent. ſtands as member for Denbigh in that year.

This is a curious letter, and may ſerve to ſhew that the cuſtom of peers interfering in elections, has at leaſt the plea of antiquity in its favour.

There is ſomething droll in the following confeſſion of Mr. Pennant, and the little hiſtory annexed to it,

‘ I hope my countrymen (ſays he) will not grow *indignant*, when I expreſs my fears, that in very early times we were as fierce and ſavage as the reſt of Europe: and they will bear this the better, when they reflect, that they keep pace with it in civilization, and in the progreſs of every fine art. We cannot deny but that we were, to the exceſs,

‘ Jealous in honor, ſudden and quick in quarrel.

‘ Two gentlemen of this houſe exemplify the aſſertion. Meiric ap Bleyddyn, reſentful of the injuries which he and his tenants received from the Engliſh judges and officers, ſlew one of the firſt, and hanged ſeveral of the latter on the oaks of his woods; by which he forfeited to the crown the lands, ſtill known in theſe parts by the name of Têr Meiric Llwyd, or the eſtate of Meiric Llwyd. As to his perſon, he ſecured it within the ſanctuary at Huſton; and marrying, founded in that neighbourhood the houſe of Llwyd y Maen.

‘ Bleyddyn Vychan, another of this race, fell out with his tenants, and in a fit of fury chaſed them from his eſtate, and turned it into a foreſt; a pretty picture of the manners of the times! The place lies in the pariſh of Llanſanan, and bears the name of Foreſt to this day.’

From the ſtory, as above related, we have reaſon to ſuppoſe that Mr. Pennant's countrymen are apt to be a little *quarrelſome*. From an inſcription which we meet with a little after, a ſuſpicion ariſes, that they are liable to another weakneſs alſo. Mr. Pennant indeed inſinuates as much, where he tells us that

‘ In Llenrhaider, a village near Denbigh caſtle, in the church-yard is a common altar-tomb of a gentleman, who choſe to build his fame on the long ſeries of anceſtors which diſtinguiſhed him from vulgar clay. It tells us, that

HEARE LYETH THE BODY OF  
JOHN, AP ROBERT, OF PORTH, AP  
DAVID, AP GRIFFITH, AP DAVID  
VAUCHAN. AP BLETHYN, AP  
GRIFFITH, AP MEREDITH,  
AP JERWORTH, AP LLEWELYN,  
AP JERORH, AP HEILIN, AP  
COWRYD, AP CADVAN, AP

ALAWGWA,

ALAWGWA, AP CADELL, THE  
KING OF POWYS, WHO  
DEPARTED THIS LIFE THE  
XX DAY OF MARCH, IN THE  
YEAR OF OUR LORD GOD  
1642, AND OF  
HIS AGE XCV.'

For the insertion of this epitaph our author's countrymen have perhaps more reason to be *indignant*, than for the quotation before given.

When our traveller gets to a place called Bar-mouth, in Meirionyddshire, he tells us a very extraordinary story, which he attests, of a fasting woman, and which, for its singularity, we shall insert.

' My curiosity (says he) was excited to examine into the truth of a surprizing relation of a woman in the parish of Cylynin, who had fasted a most supernatural length of time. I took boat, had a most pleasant passage up the harbour, charmed with the beauty of the shores, intermixed with woods, verdant pastures, and corn fields. I landed, and, after a short walk, found in a farm called Tydden Bach, the object of my excursion, Mary Thomas, who was boarded here, and kept with great humanity and neatness. She was of the age of forty-seven, of a good countenance, very pale, thin, but not so much emaciated as might be expected, from the strangeness of the circumstances I am going to relate; her eyes weak, her voice low, deprived of the use of her lower extremities, and quite bed-ridden; her pulse rather strong, her intellects clear and sensible.

' On examining her, she informed me, that at the age of seven, she had some eruptions like the measles, which grew confluent and universal; and she became so sore, that she could not bear the least touch: she received some ease by the application of a sheep's skin, just taken from the animal. After this, she was seized, at spring and fall, with swellings and inflammations, during which time she was confined to her bed; but in the intervals could walk about; and once went to Holy-well, in hopes of cure.

' When she was about twenty-seven years of age, she was attacked with the same complaint, but in a more violent manner; and during two years and a half, remained insensible, and took no manner of nourishment, notwithstanding her friends forced open her mouth with a spoon to get something down; but the moment the spoon was taken away, her teeth met, and closed with vast snapping and violence: during that time, she flung up vast quantities of blood.

' She well remembers the return of her senses, and her knowledge of every body about her. She thought she had slept but  
a night,



at night, and asked her mother whether she had given her any thing the day before, for she found herself very hungry. Meat was brought to her; but so far from being able to take any thing solid, she could scarcely swallow a spoonful of thin whey. From this, she continued seven years and a half without any food or liquid, excepting sufficient of the latter to moisten her lips. At the end of this period, she again fancied herself hungry, and desired an egg; of which she got down the quantity of a nut kernel. About this time, she requested to receive the sacrament; which she did, by having a crum of bread steeped in the wine. After this, she takes for her daily subsistence a bit of bread, weighing about two penny-weights, seven grains, and drinks a wine glass of water: sometimes a spoonful of wine, but frequently abstains whole days from food and liquids. She sleeps very indifferently: the ordinary functions of nature are very small, and very seldom performed. Her attendant told me, that her disposition of mind was mild; her temper even; that she was very religious, and very fervent in prayer: the natural effect of the state of her body, long unembarrassed with the grossness of food, and a constant alienation of thought from all worldly affairs.

Snowdon, the great object of curiosity, for a view of which the journey was undertaken, is thus described.

'The top of Snowdon, which by way of pre-eminence is styled Y WYDDEA or the *Conspicuous*, rises almost to a point, the mountain from hence seems propped by four vast buttresses; between which are four deep Cwms, or hollows: each, excepting one, had one or more lakes, lodged in its distant bottom. The nearest was Ffynnon Lâs, or The Green Well, lying immediately below us. One of the company had the curiosity to descend a very bad way to a jutting rock, that impended over the monstrous precipice; and he seemed like Mercury ready to take his flight from the summit of Atlas. The waters of Ffynnon Lâs, from this height, appeared black and unfathomable, and the edges quite green. From thence is a succession of bottoms, surrounded by the most lofty and rugged hills, the greatest part of whose sides are quite mural, and form the most magnificent amphitheatre in nature. The Wyddfa is on one side; Crib y Distill, with its serrated tops, on another; Crib Coch, a ridge of fiery redness, appears beneath the preceding; and opposite to it is the boundary called the Lliwedd. Another very singular support to this mountain is Y Clawdd Coch, rising into a sharp ridge, so narrow, as not to afford breadth even for a path.

'The view from this exalted situation is unbounded. In a former tour, I saw from it the county of Chester, the high hills of Yorkshire, part of the north of England, Scotland, and Ireland: a plain view of the Isle of Man; and that of Anglesea lay extended like a map beneath us, with every rill visible. I took much pains to see this prospect to advantage; sat up at a farm on

the west till about twelve, and walked up the whole way. The night was remarkably fine and starry: towards morn, the stars faded away, and left a short interval of darkness, which was soon dispersed by the dawn of day. The body of the sun appeared most distinct, with the rotundity of the moon, before it rose high enough to render its beams too brilliant for our sight. The sea which bounded the western part was gilt by its beams, first in slender streaks, at length glowed with redness. The prospect was disclosed to us like the gradual drawing up of a curtain in a theatre. We saw more and more, till the heat became so powerful, as to attract the mists from the various lakes, which in a slight degree obscured the prospect. The shadow of the mountain was flung many miles, and shewed its bicapitated form; the Wyddfa making one, Crib y Distill the other head. I counted this time between twenty and thirty lakes, either in this county, or Meirionyddshire. The day proved so excessively hot, that my journey cost me the skin of the lower part of my face, before I reached the resting-place, after the fatigue of the morning.

On this day, the sky was obscured very soon after I got up. A vast mist enveloped the whole circuit of the mountain. The prospect down was horrible. It gave an idea of numbers of abysses, concealed by a thick smoke, furiously circulating around us. Very often a gulf of wind formed an opening in the clouds, which gave a fine and distinct view of lake and valley. Sometimes they opened only in one place; at others, in many at once, exhibiting a most strange and perplexing sight of water, fields, rocks, or chasms, in fifty different places. They then closed at once, and left us involved in darkness; in a small space, they would separate again, and fly in wild eddies round the middle of the mountains, and expose, in parts, both tops and bases clear to our view. We descended from this various scene with great reluctance; but before we reached our horses, a thunder storm overtook us. Its rolling among the mountains was inexpressibly awful: the rain uncommonly heavy. We re-mounted our horses, and gained the bottom with great hazard. The little rills, which on our ascent trickled along the gullies on the sides of the mountain, were now swelled into torrents; and we and our steeds passed with the utmost risque of being swept away by these sudden waters. At length we arrived safe, yet sufficiently wet and weary, to our former quarters.

It is very rare that the traveller gets a proper day to ascend the hill; for it often appears clear, but by the evident attraction of the clouds by this lofty mountain, it becomes suddenly and unexpectedly enveloped in mist, when the clouds have just before appeared very remote, and at great heights. At times, I have observed them lower to half their height, and notwithstanding they had been dispersed to the right and to the left, yet then have met from both sides, and united to involve the summit in one great obscurity.

‘The



'The quantity of water which flows from the lakes of Snowdonia, is very considerable; so much, that I doubt not but collectively they would exceed the waters of the Thames, before it meets the flux of the ocean.

'The reports of the height of this noted hill have been very differently given. A Mr. Caswell, who was employed by Mr. Adams, in 1682, in a survey of Wales, measured it by instruments made by the directions of Mr. Flamsteed; and asserts its height to have been twelve hundred and forty yards: but for the honor of our mountain I am sorry to say, that I must give greater credit to the experiments made of late years, which have sunk it to one thousand one hundred and eighty-nine yards and one foot, reckoning from the quay at Caernarvon to the highest peak.'

This work is adorned with a frontispiece and eleven plates, some of which are well executed, particularly the head of Sir Richard Wynne, by Cornelius Jansen, finely engraved by Bartolozzi. There is likewise given with this volume a small set of supplemental plates, etched by Moses Griffiths, whom our author recommends to the public as a worthy, sober, and ingenious man, and an almost self-taught genius. These etchings are faithfully performed, and, considered as first efforts, have no inconsiderable merit.

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*Remarks on the Influence of Climate, Situation, Nature of Country, Population, Nature of Food, and Way of Life, on the Disposition and Temper, Manners and Behaviour, Intellectuals, Laws and Customs, Form of Government, and Religion, of Mankind. By William Falconer, M. D. F. R. S. 4to. 18s. boards. Dilly.*

**I**N a preface to this work, Dr. Falconer desires the reader would observe, that he has not given it the name of a treatise, or essay, but of Remarks; as he means not to insinuate that it affords a complete discussion of the subject, but only a collection of such observations as occurred to him on a general view of the influence of physical causes on the moral world. In regard to those who have treated of this subject, he mentions, as a common mistake, the making their positions too universal. The effects of climate, &c. he farther observes, are all of them general, and not particular; and if a considerable majority of the nations, as well as the individuals, that live under a certain climate, are affected in a certain manner, we may pronounce decisively on its influence, notwithstanding there may be some exceptions. It must also, he remarks, be taken into consideration, that the influence of

one of the above causes often corrects the other; a circumstance which he illustrates by a few examples. Numerous as are the causes of physical influence mentioned by Dr. Falconer, he means not to have it understood, that he has comprehended the whole which can be supposed to operate on the human character; but though they may be only a small part, he believes them to be among the most powerful and important.

The work is divided into six books, and those into chapters and sections. The author begins with the consideration of climate; shewing the first effects of heat upon the living human body, and afterwards those of cold. To give our readers an idea of the principles upon which he proceeds, we shall lay before them the second and third chapters of this book.

‘ *On the Effects of Heat upon the living Human Body.*

Heat is perhaps the most universal stimulus with which we are acquainted; when applied in any great degree to the human body, it excites the action of the nervous system in general, and of the cutaneous nerves especially, which are most exposed to its influence, and renders them more susceptible of any impression. If the heat be long continued, it produces a moisture upon the skin, called perspiration, which, by relaxing the cuticle, keeps the subjacent nervous papillæ in a supple state, and obvious to every impulse. It likewise exposes the extremities of the nerves to external impressions, by keeping the skin in a smooth state, and void of corrugation. Heat also, by increasing the secretion of perspiration, causes the perspirable matter (similar to what occurs in other increased glandular discharges, as the saliva, the mucus of the nose, &c.) to be very much attenuated, and consequently fit for being easily and quickly evaporated, without the same portion of it remaining long upon the skin, or leaving much residuum; which renders the cuticle very thin and fine, and of consequence fit for transmitting sensations through its substance. By increasing the perspiration, heat diminishes the other evacuations, and even the secretions. The urine is separated but in small quantity, and the alvine evacuation is very slow. The bile however must be excepted, which is considerably increased in quantity, and as some think rendered more acrimonious in quality. The disposition of the body and juices to putrefaction is also much augmented.

‘ *Effects of Cold on the living Human Body.*

Cold, on the contrary, in similar circumstances, corrugates or wrinkles the cuticle, and causes the cutaneous papillæ to contract, and to retire deeper into the skin. It also closes the orifices of the cutaneous glands, and thus prevents the access of any irritating substance. By contracting the nervous papillæ, it diminishes



and perspiration, and probably makes the perspirable matter more viscid, which renders the cuticle more dry and rigid, and even considerably thicker; by all which the accuracy of sensation or feeling is much diminished. Perhaps too, as Mr. Montefquieu observes, the constriction on the milary glands may render the nerves of the skin in a degree paralytic; and this I am inclined to believe may be in some measure the case, from that insensibility which occurs in the access of fevers, especially intermittents, where the cold fit is the most strong and distinguishable.

' The secretion of the bile is diminished by cold, and its quality rendered less acrimonious. The urinary and alvine evacuations are more regular, and more proportioned to the quantity of food taken in. The bodily strength is also greater, the bulk of the body larger, and its humours less disposed to putrefaction.'

In the fourth chapter the author examines the effects of heat on the temper and disposition. Having observed that heat increases the faculty or power, as well as the accuracy, of sensation or feeling, he next remarks that this sensibility of the body is by sympathy communicated to the mind; producing that almost incredible degree of mental sensibility which prevails in hot climates. Hence, he observes, arises, among the inhabitants of those climates, their passionate temper, remarked by Hippocrates, and their impatience under several circumstances of behaviour, which never affect people of a more phlegmatic temperament. He adds, that this is particularly observable in Europe among the Italians, and in America among the inhabitants of the West India Islands.

The author observes, that to the same sensibility is owing the amorous disposition of the people of hot climates; which disposition, in its turn, increases the sensibility that produced it. This, as well as the jealousy attendant on love, has been always remarked as a part of the character of the people in those countries.

Concerning the vindictive disposition, we meet with the following observations.

' From what has been said of the sensibility of the people of hot climates, we might be inclined to think that their disposition would be exceedingly mild and tender: but this I do not believe to be the general character of the people. The sensibility with which they are endued, however it may teach them to feel for others, causes them to have very quick sensations on their own account. Thus many circumstances, which are overlooked in cold climates, are construed into irreparable affronts in Japan, and such as nothing but death can expiate. Even the Chinese, who, as a commercial people, are obliged to have some com-

mand of temper, are, when much provoked, violent and vindictive. The same difference is, in some measure, observable between Spain and Italy, and England. The cruel revenges likewise, such as by the dagger and by poison, so frequent in hot climates, with the inhuman treatment of prisoners which generally prevails there, prove evidently their disposition to be of this nature.

On the principle of sensibility the author also accounts for the levity or inconstancy, so remarkable among the inhabitants of warm climates.

Another characteristic disposition generally imputed to the inhabitants of hot climates is timidity. Dr. Falconer observes that this likewise is partly owing to the sensibility of the people; but that other causes concur. For instance, the great perspiration to which they are subject, weakening the body, the languor is communicated to the mind.

In respect of indolence, which constitutes an ingredient in the character of the inhabitants of hot climates, Dr. Falconer observes that it proceeds from several causes, such as heat, languor, and great perspiration.

‘I am likewise inclined to believe, says he, that the bilious disposition of the inhabitants of these countries, has some share in causing their indolence of disposition. Hot climates, I have before remarked, tend to increase the generation of bile, which also is often obstructed in its passage into the intestines, and regurgitated into the system; and this takes place so frequently there, as to form, in some measure, a characteristic of the people. Now the bile, although intended by nature to be an active stimulus to the intestines, exerts an effect totally different when absorbed into the circulatory system. It there produces an aversion to motion, or exertion of any of the faculties of either mind or body; from which effect, it may reasonably be supposed to contribute towards forming this part of their character. The tendency, likewise, of the animal fluids to putrefaction, which is almost always the case in such climates, and is probably owing to the constant perspiration, has likewise, I imagine, some effect in producing this inactivity of disposition, as nothing so much or so quickly debilitates the human body. This we see instanced in the case of putrid fevers, a sudden and remarkable prostration of strength being one of their most distinguishing symptoms. Even the cowardice of the people operates as a cause of their indolence; which last favours the other again in its turn.’

In the fifth chapter, our author considers the effects of a cold climate on the temper and disposition. He observes that cold, by blunting the power of feeling, tends greatly to diminish the sensibility of the system in general; and that the  
cir-



circumstances of the greater bulk and bodily strength of the people of cold climates, likewise afford reasons why they are endowed with less sensibility. The inhabitants of cold countries, he remarks, have little disposition to the tender passions, which are connected with great sensibility; and that enthusiastic friendship, for the same reason, is also little known among them. In making this remark, our author means not to insinuate, that people in cold climates are destitute of that bond of society, but that their attachment is derived from other, and perhaps more laudable motives, such as esteem and gratitude, and seldom arrives at that height of fondness and partiality which distinguishes the other.

Dr. Falconer is of opinion, that the inhabitants of cold countries are far from being destitute of benevolence and kindness of disposition; the impression of which, he thinks, is more permanent, and attended with greater effect, than in the inhabitants of hot climates. In support of this character he mentions their charity to the poor, and their mild treatment of prisoners taken in war. It may be questioned, however, whether those two virtues are not more owing to civilization than the influence of climate.

The qualities next ascribed by our author to the inhabitants of cold climates are, steadiness of conduct, and bravery; the latter of which, according to his principle, arises from the diminution of sensibility.

The courage, however, of these people, says Dr. Falconer, appears to be rather of the passive kind; though to a great degree insensible of fear, they are from the same insensibility less capable of brisk exertion. At this disposition Strabo seems to hint, who remarks, that the northern nations were famous in close fights, and for persevering courage. This appears too from the circumstances in general attending the wars in which the Russians have been engaged. Though frequently victorious over the best-disciplined troops, even those of the king of Prussia, by their intrepidity and steadiness, they were less able to improve a victory, or to reap all the concurrent advantages from it, than their more southerly neighbours.

The instance above adduced by our author in confirmation of his doctrine, seems not to be entirely satisfactory. To improve a victory depends rather on the commander than the army; and the former may be actuated by different considerations, exclusive of any which can be supposed to arise from insensibility. The doctor is of opinion, that the courage of the inhabitants of cold countries is also partly derived from the habit of labour, exercise, and industry, inspired by the

climate. Different causes mentioned in other parts of the work, he thinks, likewise concur.

The sixth chapter treats of the effect of moderate climates on the temper and disposition. To the inhabitants of such climates the author ascribes a degree of sensibility and a temper of mind equally remote from those which characterize the people in hot or cold countries. Love, he thinks, undoubtedly appears to the greatest perfection in moderate climates. It is there united with a degree of sensibility and passion on one hand, and esteem and attachment on the other.

In respect of friendship, and moderation of conduct, he also gives the preference to the inhabitants of temperate climates. He is of opinion, however, that they are particularly liable to fickleness of disposition.

Fickleness also, says he, or uncertainty of temper, is another mark of the inhabitants of moderate climates. This might naturally be expected from such a medium of temperature, where neither of the two extremes prevail in a degree sufficient to impress the mind with the peculiar effects of either. This disposition is very observable amongst our own countrymen, and begets a habit of impatience, which makes them incapable of bearing even the happiest and most fortunate train of affairs for any long time together. This is remarkably instanced in political matters. The present state of which is almost always represented in the common discourse of the people to be the worst that is possible to be imagined. This increases often to such a degree, as to cause an alteration of public measures, and sometimes of ministers; which at first gives satisfaction, but soon a fresh subject of complaint is started, and a new mode of conduct becomes necessary; which also in its turn is changed in like manner. Nor is this confined to public affairs only, although in them it is most conspicuous, as being subjects of the most general and public debate; but daily appears in private life, in which we see people, whose situation in almost every respect would appear to a stranger nearly as happy as the condition of human nature admits, complaining of their unhappiness, depreciating every good, and magnifying every frivolous misfortune; and this with such eagerness, that they often seem, when intent on demonstrating the miseries of their lives, to escape from their sorrows, and to find a tolerable pastime in proving that they are unhappy. Nor are the effects of this disposition confined to mere declamation, or verbal complaint; it often produces the most terrible consequences, by inducing the sufferers to put an end to their miseries by a voluntary death.

This often happened among the Greeks and Romans; but we never hear of any of them destroying themselves without some apparent cause. But the English, and indeed some other nations



tions in nearly the same latitude, often put an end to their lives in the bosom of happiness. This seems to resemble a disorder of the climate, and to be interwoven into the constitution of the people. With them, labour and pain are in general more tolerable than a weariness of life, or an uneasiness in existence. Pain is a local thing, which leads us to a desire of seeing an end of it. The burthen of life is an evil confined to no particular place, which prompts us to the desire of ceasing to live. This impatience is totally different from the levity of hot climates. The latter, I have before observed, is of the nature of a transitory attachment, which is effaced by a subsequent; but the former is generally a settled disgust. In the one case, the change happens from a new impression; in the other, from dislike of the present situation.

‘ The levity of hot climates differs also from the impatience of the English, in being more personal. In the former, they are variable in their personal attachments, whilst their manners and customs remain unchanged through ages.

‘ With us, the manners and customs are perpetually varying, whilst our personal regards are steady and permanent. This disposition appears very remarkably in political affairs. In England, the chief complaint against any particular administration is on account of certain measures which they have adopted; and if these be altered, the people seldom fail of being satisfied, at least for a time.

‘ But the insurrections in the East, are directed chiefly against the person of some particular minister or favourite; and, provided he be but removed, the complaints of the people are generally appeased, though the measures and style of government remain as before.’

In the foregoing extract, Dr. Falconer imputes to temperature entirely an effect which seems rather to proceed from the variation of temperature, or from the frequent humidity of the atmosphere in an insular situation. His remarks on the different disposition of the English, and the inhabitants of the Eastern countries are also liable to objection. If, in England, there should arise a complaint against any particular administration, on account of certain measures which they have adopted, what can be more natural, in any climate, than that upon an alteration of the obnoxious measures, the people seldom fail of being satisfied? The satisfaction of the inhabitants of the East, according to the proposition which our author has stated, is equally conformable to nature. Both the English and Eastern nations are supposed to have obtained a redress of their grievances; and each, from the want of motive, or from an attachment to the government of the respective country, ceases all farther complaint.

According to this writer, the inhabitants of temperate climates, although inferior in passive courage to those of the cold, have more courage of the active kind, and are more enterprising. He is also of opinion, that temperate climates produce a much greater variety of character and disposition, than either of the two extremes of heat or cold.

In the seventh chapter, which relates to climates subject to great variety of temperature, we meet only with a few observations from the writings of Hippocrates.

The eighth chapter treats of the effects of climate on the manners; respecting which our author makes the following observations.

“In point of morality in general, it is, I believe, that the manners of cold climates far exceed those of warm; in the latter, the passions are naturally very strong, and likewise kept in a perpetual state of irritation from the high degree of sensibility that prevails, which causes a great multiplication of crimes, by multiplying the objects of temptation. Many desires and passions arise there, from causes that would either never occur in a cold climate, or be easily resisted; but in a warm one, the passion or inclination is stronger, and the power of restraint less. In cold climates, the desires are but few, in comparison, and not often of a very immoral kind; and those repressed with less difficulty, as they are seldom very violent. In temperate climates, the passions are in a middle state, and generally inconstant in their nature; sufficiently strong, however, to furnish motives for action, though not so powerful as to admit of no restraint from considerations of prudence, justice, or religion.”

Dr. Falconer remarks, that the moral qualities of a people depending in a great measure on sensibility, the inhabitants of hot climates are particularly liable to be influenced from an excess of this principle.

He illustrates his doctrine by observations on emotions of passion, gallantry and intrigue, jealousy, cowardice, suspicion, fraud and knavery, perfidy and inconstancy, idleness, luxury, excess in diet, and gaming.

The ninth chapter treats of the effects of a cold climate on the morals. The characteristic vices of those who inhabit such climates, in the opinion of our author, are proneness to acts of violence, drunkenness, gaming; and their virtues, decency of conduct and behaviour, candour and openness, constancy and resolution, activity and industry; the two last of which, he thinks, are confined chiefly to bodily exertion, and have little reference to mental employments.



We shall present our readers with the tenth chapter, which relates to the moral character of the people of temperate climates.

‘ The moral character of the people of temperate climates is of a mixed kind, though considerably more inclinable to virtue, at least the practical part of it, as far as regards external actions, than those of hot ones. Their greater acquaintance with the nature of trade, and the necessity of a mutual confidence, especially in large concerns, renders them less knavish and deceitful. Their consciousness of superiority, both in courage and in military science, renders them less cruel; and their sense of the necessity of decency of conduct and behaviour, in order to preserve the police and form of government, prevents scandalous or open violations of morality.

‘ The confidence in their power and abilities, of which I have just spoken, is, I imagine, productive of another good effect, in rendering the people less selfish and interested, and in infusing into them a degree of public spirit and regard for their country, and mankind in general. When a man lives in daily fear for his person or property, all his regards are centered in himself, or confined to his nearest connections; and the farther he enlarges his views, the more he thinks he increases his danger. But when a man esteems himself and his connections to be in a reasonable state of security, the human mind, naturally active, seeks for employment elsewhere; and in those, whose dispositions are inclined to virtue, settles in promoting the good of their country, or the interests of mankind in general.

‘ This is a circumstance highly advantageous to the public; and accordingly we see, in the temperate climates of Europe, that the interests of every state are better understood, and more attended to, both in their commercial and political capacity, than in any of the other quarters of the world; and that, accordingly, they formerly had, and still retain, the pre-eminence.’

From the account and specimens already given of this work, our readers will observe, that Dr. Falconer delineates with great minuteness the operation of those causes, both physical and moral, which he supposes to have an influence on the characters of different nations. The subject has been treated by other writers, particularly Mr. Hume and baron Montesquieu; the former of whom has perhaps ascribed too little, and the latter too much, to the influence of climate. Dr. Falconer appears to tread chiefly in the steps of the French author; whose theory he has extended, and ingeniously applied, through a variety of complicated speculations. If he has given such a scope to detail as may be thought by some readers unnecessary, we must impute his conduct to the desire of unfolding the principles of his enquiry in the clearest and fullest view.

[To be continued.]

*The History of English Poetry. Vol. III. By Thomas Warton, B. D. [Concluded from Vol. LI. p. 330.]*

**M**R. Warton justly observes that, at the revival of learning, the progress of our language was greatly retarded by the custom of writing in Latin. The first that set the example of cultivating their vernacular tongue, were sir Thomas More, and Roger Ascham; the former of whom wrote in it a Dialogue on Tribulation, and a History of Richard the Third; and the latter composed his Toxophilus, chiefly with a view of giving a correct model of English composition. The example of those writers was soon followed by other learned men, particularly by Thomas Wilson, who published a system of Logic and Rhetoric; in the latter of which he delivers explicit rules for composing in the English language.

The first poem the historian mentions at the commencement of the reign of queen Elizabeth, is the play of *Gordobuc*, written by Thomas Sackville, lord Buckhurst; of which, though foreign to our author's plan, yet as being the earliest specimen in our language of a regular tragedy, he delivers a particular account. It was first exhibited in the great hall of the Inner Temple, by the students of that society, as part of a Christmas entertainment, and afterwards before queen Elizabeth at Whitehall, in January 1561. Every act is introduced, as was the custom in our old plays, with a piece of machinery, called the dumb show, shadowing by an allegorical exhibition, the matter that was immediately to follow. In treating of the nature of this entertainment, Mr. Warton makes the following remark.

‘ I take this opportunity of expressing my surprise, that this ostensible comment of the dumb shew should not regularly appear in the tragedies of Shakspeare. There are even proofs that he treated it with contempt and ridicule. Although some critics are of opinion, that because it is never described in form at the close or commencement of his acts, it was therefore never introduced. Shakspeare's aim was to collect an audience, and for this purpose all the common expedients were necessary. No dramatic writer of his age has more battles or ghosts. His representations abound with the usual appendages of mechanical terror, and he adopts all the superstitions of the theatre. This problem can only be resolved into the activity or the superiority of a mind, which either would not be entangled by the formality, or which saw through the futility, of this unnatural and extrinsic ornament. It was not by declamation or by pantomime that Shakspeare was to fix his eternal dominion over the hearts of mankind.’

Our



Our author observes, that this appearance of a regular tragedy, with the division of acts and scenes, and the accompaniment of the ancient chorus, seems to have directed the attention of our more learned poets to the study of the old classical drama, and in a short time to have produced English versions of the *Jocasta* of Euripides, and of the ten tragedies of Seneca; but he does not find that it was speedily followed by any original compositions on the same legitimate model. Many more of the ancient poets, however, soon after appeared in English verse. Before the year 1600, Homer, Musæus, Virgil, Horace, Ovid, and Martial, were translated: of which versions Mr. Warton gives several specimens, accompanied with critical remarks, and anecdotes of the respective authors. For the gratification of our readers we shall lay before them the two following extracts.

From the translation of Ovid's *Metamorphosis*, by Arthur Golding.

' The princely pallace of the Sun, stood gorgeous to behold,  
On stately pillars builded high, of yellow burnisht gold;  
Beset with sparkling carbuncles, that like to fire did shine;  
The rooffe was framed curiously, of yuorie pure and fine.  
The two-doore-leues of siluer clere, a radiant light did cast:  
But yet the cunning workmanship of thinges therein far past  
The stuffe whereof the doores were made: for there a perfect plat  
Had Vulcane drawne of all the world, both of the sourses that  
Embrace the earth with winding waves, and of the stedfast  
ground,  
And of the heauen itself also, that both encloseth round:  
And first and foremost of the sea, the gods thereof did stand,  
Loude-sounding Tryton, with his shrill and writhen trumpe in  
hand,  
Unstable Protew, changing aye his figure and his hue,  
From shape to shape a thousand fights, as list him to renue.---  
In purple robe, and royall throne of emerauds freshe and greene,  
Did Phœbus sit, and on each hand stood wayting well bestene,  
Dayes, Months, Yeeres, Ages, Seasons, Times, and eke the equall  
Houres;  
There stood the Springtime, with a crowne of fresh and fragrant  
floures:  
There wayted Summer naked starke, all saue a wheaten hat:  
And Autumne smerde with treading grapes late at the pressing  
vat:  
And lastly, quaking for the colde, stood Winter all forlorne,  
With rugged head as white as doue, and garments al to torne;  
Forladen with the ifycles, that dangled vp and downe,  
Upon his gray and hoarie beard, and snowie frozen crowne.  
The Sunne thus sitting in the midst, did cast his piercing eye, &c.'

Horace's

Horace's Epistle to Albius Tibullus, by Thomas Drant.

'Tybullus, frend and gentle iudge  
Of all that I do clatter,  
What dost thou all this while abroad,  
How might I learne the matter?  
Dost thou inuente such worthy workes  
As Cassius' poemmes passe?  
Or doste thou closelie creeping lurcke  
Amid the wholsom grasse?  
Addicted to philosophie,  
Contemning not a whitte  
That's seemlie for an honest man,  
And for a man of witte.  
Not thou a bodie without breast!  
The goddes made thee t'excell  
In shape, the gods haue lent thee goodes,  
And arte to vse them well.  
What better thing vnto her childe  
Can with the mother kinde?  
Than wisdome, and, in fyled frame,  
To vtter owte his minde:  
To haue fayre fauoure, fame enoughe,  
And perfect staye, and health;  
Things trim at will, and not to feele  
The emptie ebb of wealth  
Twixt hope to haue, and care to kepe,  
Twixt feare and wrathe, awaye  
Consumes the time: eche day that cummes,  
Thinke it the latter daye.  
The hower that cummes unlooked for  
Shall cum more welcum aye.  
Thou shalt me fynde fat and well fed,  
As pubble as may be;  
And, when thou wilt, a merie mate,  
To laughe and chat with thee.'

Translation was not at this time confined to the Greek and Roman writers, but included Italian books, especially such as were written on fictitious and narrative subjects; a circumstance which had great influence on English literature, and, in particular, on poetry. Mr. Warton presents us with a full view of the chief of those translations from the Italian, which appeared in England before the year 1600. From his minute and accurate enquiry we learn, that the best stories of the early and original Italian novelists, either by immediate translation, or through the mediation of Spanish, French, or Latin versions, by paraphrase, abridgement, imitation, or with the change of names, incidents, and characters, were generally known in England before the close of the reign of Elizabeth.

After



After deducing and delineating by a number of examples, accompanied with judicious remarks, the history of English poetry during part of the administration of Elizabeth, Mr. Warton favours us with some general reflexions on the poetical genius of this reign. These are comprised in the last section of the volume, which is replete with a variety of ingenious and philosophical observations; so interesting to every reader of taste, that, were it compatible with the plan of our Review, we should with pleasure extract the whole section: but we cannot refrain from availing ourselves of the following specimen.

‘ The age of queen Elizabeth is commonly called the golden age of English poetry. It certainly may not improperly be styled the most poetical age of these annals.’

‘ Among the great features which strike us in the poetry of this period, are the predominancy of fable, of fiction, and fancy, and a predilection for interesting adventures and pathetic events. I will endeavour to assign and explain the cause of this characteristic distinction, which may chiefly be referred to the following principles, sometimes blended, and sometimes operating singly: the revival and vernacular versions of the classics, the importation and translation of Italian novels, the visionary reveries or refinements of false philosophy, a degree of superstition sufficient for the purposes of poetry, the adoption of the machineries of romance, and the frequency and improvements of allegoric exhibition in the popular spectacles.’

‘ When the corruptions and impostures of popery were abolished, the fashion of cultivating the Greek and Roman learning became universal: and the literary character was no longer appropriated to scholars by profession, but assumed by the nobility and gentry. The ecclesiastics had found it their interest to keep the languages of antiquity to themselves, and men were eager to know what had been so long injuriously concealed. Truth propagates truth, and the mantle of mystery was removed not only from religion but from literature. The laity, who had now been taught to assert their natural privileges, became impatient of the old monopoly of knowledge, and demanded admittance to the usurpations of the clergy. The general curiosity for new discoveries, heightened either by just or imaginary ideas of the treasures contained in the Greek and Roman writers, excited all persons of leisure and fortune to study the classics. The pedantry of the present age was the politeness of the last. An accurate comprehension of the phraseology and peculiarities of the ancient poets, historians, and orators, which yet seldom went farther than a kind of technical erudition, was an indispensable and almost the principal object in the circle of a gentleman's education. Every young lady of fashion was carefully instituted in classical letters: and the daughter of a duchess was taught, not only to distil strong waters, but to construe Greek. Among the learned

females of high distinction, queen Elizabeth herself was the most conspicuous. Roger Ascham, her preceptor, speaks with rapture of her astonishing progress in the Greek nouns; and declares with no small degree of triumph, that during a long residence at Windsor-castle, she was accustomed to read more Greek in a day, than "some prebendary of that church did Latin, in one week." And although perhaps a princess looking out words in a lexicon, and writing down hard phrases from Plutarch's Lives, may be thought at present a more incompatible and extraordinary character, than a canon of Windsor understanding no Greek and but little Latin, yet Elizabeth's passion for these acquisitions was then natural, and resulted from the genius and habitudes of her age.

The books of antiquity being thus familiarised to the great, every thing was tinged with ancient history and mythology. The heathen gods, although discountenanced by the Calvinists on a suspicion of their tending to cherish and revive a spirit of idolatry, came into general vogue. When the queen paraded through a country-town, almost every pageant was a pantheon. When she paid a visit at the house of any of her nobility, at entering the hall she was saluted by the Penates, and conducted to her privy chamber by Mercury. Even the pastry-cooks were expert mythologists. At dinner, select transformations of Ovid's Metamorphoses were exhibited in confectionary: and the splendid iceing of an immense historic plumb-cake, was embossed with a delicious basso-relievo of the destruction of Troy. In the afternoon, when she condescended to walk in the garden, the lake was covered with Tritons and Nereids: the pages of the family were converted into wood-nymphs who peeped from every bower: and the footmen gamboled over the lawns in the figure of satyrs. I speak it without designing to insinuate any unfavourable suspicions, but it seems difficult to say, why Elizabeth's virginity should have been made the theme of perpetual and excessive panegyric: nor does it immediately appear, that there is less merit or glory in a married than a maiden queen. Yet, the next morning, after sleeping in a room hung with the tapestry of the voyage of Eneas, when her majesty hunted in the park, she was met by Diana, who pronouncing our royal prude to be the brightest paragon of unspotted chastity, invited her to groves free from the intrusions of Acteon. The truth is, she was so profusely flattered for this virtue, because it was esteemed the characteristical ornament of the heroines, as fantastic honour was the chief pride of the champions, of the old barbarous romance. It was in conformity to the sentiments of chivalry, which still continued in vogue, that she was celebrated for chastity: the compliment, however, was paid in a classical allusion.

Queens must be ridiculous when they would appear as women. The softer attractions of sex vanish on the throne. Elizabeth sought all occasions of being extolled for her beauty, of which indeed in the prime of her youth she possessed but a small share, what-



whatever might have been her pretensions to absolute virginity. Notwithstanding her exaggerated habits of dignity and ceremony, and a certain affectation of imperial severity, she did not perceive this ambition of being complimented for beauty, to be an idle and unpardonable levity, totally inconsistent with her high station and character. As she conquered all nations with her arms, it matters not what were the triumphs of her eyes. Of what consequence was the complexion of the mistress of the world? Not less vain of her person than her politics, this stately coquet, the guardian of the protestant faith, the terror of the sea, the mediatrix of the factions of France, and the scourge of Spain, was infinitely mortified, if an ambassador, at the first audience, did not tell her she was the finest woman in Europe. No negotiation succeeded unless she was addressed as a goddess. Encomiastic harangues drawn from this topic, even on the supposition of youth and beauty, were surely superfluous, unsuitable, and unworthy; and were offered and received with an equal impropriety. Yet when she rode through the streets of the city of Norwich, Cupid, at the command of the mayor and aldermen, advancing from a groupe of gods who had left Olympus to grace the procession, gave her a golden arrow, the most effective weapon of his well-furnished quiver, which under the influence of such irresistible charms was sure to wound the most obdurate heart. "A gift, says honest Hollinshed, which her majesty, now verging to her fiftieth year, received very thankfullie." In one of the fullsome interludes at court, where she was present, the singing-boys of her chapel presented the story of the three rival goddesses on mount Ida, to which her majesty was ingeniously added as a fourth: and Paris was arraigned in form for adjudging the golden apple to Venus, which was due to the queen alone.

This inundation of classical pedantry soon infected our poetry. Our writers, already trained in the school of fancy, were suddenly dazzled with these novel imaginations, and the divinities and heroes of pagan antiquity decorated every composition. The perpetual allusions to ancient fable were often introduced without the least regard to propriety. Shakspeare's Mrs. Page, who is not intended in any degree to be a learned or an affected lady, laughing at the cumbersome courtship of her corpulent lover Falstaffe, says, "I had rather be a giantess and lie under mount Pelion." This familiarity with the pagan story was not, however, so much owing to the prevailing study of the original authors, as to the numerous English versions of them, which were consequently made. The translations of the classics, which now employed every pen, gave a currency and a celebrity to these fancies, and had the effect of diffusing them among the people. No sooner were they delivered from the pale of the scholastic languages, than they acquired a general notoriety. Ovid's *Metamorphoses* just translated by Golding, to instance no farther, disclosed a new world of fiction, even to the illiterate. As we had now all the ancient fables in English, learned allusions, whether in a poem or a pageant, were no longer obscure and un-

intelligible to common readers and common spectators. And here we are led to observe, that at this restoration of the classics, we were first struck only with their fabulous inventions. We did not attend to their regularity of design and justness of sentiment. A rude age, beginning to read these writers, imitated their extravagancies, not their natural beauties. And these, like other novelties, were pursued to a blameable excess'—

'— Another capital source of the poetry peculiar to this period, consisted in the numerous translations of Italian tales into English. These narratives, not dealing altogether in romantic inventions, but in real life and manners, and in artful arrangements of fictitious yet probable events, afforded a new gratification to a people which yet retained their ancient relish for tale-telling, and became the fashionable amusement of all who professed to read for pleasure. They gave rise to innumerable plays and poems, which would not otherwise have existed; and turned the thoughts of our writers to new inventions of the same kind. Before these books became common, affecting situations, the combination of incident, and the pathos of catastrophe, were almost unknown. Distress, especially that arising from the conflicts of the tender passion, had not yet been shewn in its most interesting forms. It was hence our poets, particularly the dramatic, borrowed ideas of a legitimate plot, and the complication of facts necessary to constitute a story either of the comic or tragic species. In proportion as knowledge encreased, genius had wanted subjects and materials. These pieces usurped the place of legends and chronicles. And although the old historical songs of the minstrels contained much bold adventure, heroic enterprise, and strong touches of rude delineation, yet they failed in that multiplication and disposition of circumstances, and in that description of characters and events approaching nearer to truth and reality, which were demanded by a more discerning and curious age. Even the rugged features of the original Gothic romance were softened by this sort of reading: and the Italian pastoral, yet with some mixture of the kind of incidents described in Heliodorus's *Ethiopic history* now newly translated, was engrafted on the feudal manners in Sydney's *Arcadia*.'

In the three volumes now published of this work, the ingenious author has traced only the rudest efforts of poetical genius in England. He is, at length, however, arrived at a period when the British Muse begins to assume a nobler and more classical appearance, when refinement of taste corrects the extravagance of imagination, and a prospect opens to the attainment of perfection in English poetry. We congratulate Mr. Warton on an epoch that offers for his investigation the most beautiful productions in our language, and which will afford subjects more worthy the exertion of those critical talents, so eminently displayed in this history; a history abounding with the strongest proofs of attentive enquiry, of the most polished taste, and most judicious observation.



*Two Letters to Dr. Newcome, Bishop of Waterford. On the Duration of Our Saviour's Ministry. By Joseph Priestley, LL.D. F. R. S. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Johnson.*

**T**HIS publication consists of two letters. The first was annexed to the author's English Harmony of the Evangelists; but not being large, is now reprinted, that the reader may have the whole correspondence, in a more convenient form.

The second contains an answer to the arguments advanced by the bishop of Waterford, in his tract on the Duration of our Lord's Ministry \*.

The Christian fathers, in general, supposed, that our Lord's public ministry extended no farther than one complete year. Their testimony, our author conceives, is of great importance. And he observes, that even Eusebius, the first who extended our Lord's ministry beyond two years and a half, and, as far as appears, all other writers, till the very moderns, supposed, that the three first evangelists related only the events of one year; that is, they go upon the idea, that only one year intervened between the imprisonment of John, and the death of Christ. ' But this space, says he, by your lordship's own confession, includes all the events, that Mr. Mann and myself endeavour to bring within the compass of a year. So that whatever the ancients thought of that part of our Lord's ministry, which preceded the imprisonment of John the Baptist (which they suppose to be recorded by John) they all agreed with me in every thing, that your lordship finds the hardest to be reconciled to, in my hypothesis. —

' — Admitting what Eusebius and all the ancients supposed (and on what good authority can we dispute it) that the three first evangelists related the events of only one year of our Lord's life, can your lordship think it credible, that they should all confine themselves to the last of three or four, when the whole was equally before them? Was there no event in the whole compass of the two or three preceding years, that they thought worth singling out and recording? This would be more especially extraordinary in the case of Luke, who relates the circumstances of our Saviour's birth so very minutely, and his visits to Jerusalem at twelve years of age. A total silence in such a writer as this, to the two or three first years of the opening of our Lord's ministry, is altogether unaccountable.' —

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\* See Crit. Rev. vol. i. p. 181.

— It is observable, that long after the opinion began to be formed, that our Saviour's ministry must have continued at least two years, all the fathers, even so late as Jerom, still speak of our Lord's suffering in the fifteenth of Tiberius, which is really inconsistent with it. For what could Christian writers mean by the fifteenth of Tiberius, but the same year that Luke meant by it? In fact, it must have been copied from Luke. But this is the very year, in which that evangelist says, that John began to preach. There is no room therefore for the extension of our Lord's ministry beyond one year.

It cannot indeed be strictly true, that our Saviour died in the same year, in which John began to preach. But the early Christians, having a general idea, that the whole subject of Luke's gospel, beginning with the preaching of John, was comprized within the space of little more than a year, they might, writing not as chronologers, but only mentioning facts incidentally, give the date, that Luke begins with, to all the events comprized within it promiscuously.

Or, since all the most early writers, who mention any date of the death of Christ according to the consuls, say that it happened when the Gemini were in that office, and their consulship was the fifteenth of the complete years of Tiberius\*, they might omit that part of the year after August, in which Augustus died, and give it to Augustus.—Either of these suppositions will tolerably well account for the slight inaccuracy.\*

There is something remarkable in the conduct of Luke's fixing with great circumstantiality the time of the commencement of John's preaching; but assigning no date to the death of Christ, an event of much more consequence. Our author thinks, that his conduct is not consistent, but on the supposition of one of these events being in his idea, so connected with the other, in the course of his narrative, as that the date of it might easily be inferred from the date of the other, which he asserts, from the tenor of his gospel, to be the case: and in this, he presumes, he has the sanction of all the ancients.

It was, he observes, their unanimous opinion, that only one year intervened between the imprisonment of John and the death of Jesus. And what is there, he asks, in the history of Luke, from the commencement of the preaching of

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\* That is, from the time of his being sole emperor, not from the time when he was admitted partner in the empire by Augustus.



John to his imprisonment, that is, to Jesus's journey to Galilee, which followed immediately upon it, that can be supposed by any reasonable construction, to take up more than a few months? It is all related in his third chapter, and the thirteen first verses of the fourth, which contains an account of nothing more than the preaching of John before the baptism of Jesus, and the temptation.

In the next section the author reconsiders and corroborates his argument, derived from the ignorance of Herod concerning Jesus, at the time of the death of John the Baptist.

Upon the bishop's hypothesis, Jesus had preached publicly almost two years, and the greatest part of the time alone, John being in prison; and this ignorance of Herod, our author thinks, is unaccountable. But upon his own hypothesis, Jesus had not been so much exposed to public notice, more than between four and five weeks; and therefore he supposes, that Herod being probably, like other kings and great men, engaged in a multiplicity of business or pleasure, he might not have heard of Jesus.

In the fourth section the author shews, that the word *παρὰ*, John vi. 4. is an interpolation, and does not appear to have been in the text, in the time of Irenæus, nor probably in that of Eusebius, nor yet in that of Epiphanius; as these writers take no notice of that expression, though it was of importance to them in some of their writings.

The bishop, in order to represent the hurry, which he thinks our Saviour must have been in, on Dr. Priestley's hypothesis, has drawn a plan of all his journeys from the first passover to the next pentecost, and then computes the number of miles he must have travelled every day. Our author reviews this computation, and finds, that there is no occasion, on his hypothesis, to have supposed our Lord to have travelled quite four miles per day; 'and where, says he, is the great improbability in this? Few men of an active life walk less, and many persons three or four times as much the whole year through. It is besides by no means certain, though it seems to be generally taken for granted, that our Saviour always travelled on foot.'

In the remaining part of this letter, the author considers the supposed references to more than two passovers in the gospels of the three first evangelists, the argument for the probable duration of our Saviour's ministry from the objects of it, the transactions at the first passover, his various journeys, the harmony of the gospels according to the ancients, with several incidental circumstances.

In this enquiry he has displayed his usual ingenuity and penetration, and given his hypothesis a very great appearance of probability. Yet, we do not suppose, that the controversy will be determined by this letter.

*The History of the Isle of Wight.* [Concluded from p. 8.]

**I**N our last Review we traced the progress of the historian through the three first chapters of this work. The fourth contains an account of the wardens, captains, and governors of the island, with the principal events under their administration. The author observes, that the persons honoured with this charge were generally selected from among the principal gentlemen of the island, and usually commissioned by the crown, though sometimes appointed by the lord of the island, or, with especial permission, elected by the inhabitants. The first institution of this office was during the minority of Baldwin the Third, grandson of William de Vernun, earl of Devon, soon after the accession of Henry the Third. The person entrusted with it was Walleran de Ties, famous for his defence of the castle of Berkhemstead against Lewis, the eldest son of Philip, king of France.—We cannot pass over this part of the work without remarking the extraordinary pains which have been taken to supply it with materials from ancient records: for the only evidence that proves this Walleran to have been warden of the island, is his appearing a subscribing witness to a grant made to the Abbey of Quarr, which is thus signed, *Teste Wallerano Teutonico custode insulæ*. He lived till the reign of Edward the First, when dying without issue, his manor of Ringwood, in Hampshire, escheated to the king.

The historian observes, that

‘ The office of warden appears not to have been incompatible with the monastic profession, as in the thirteenth of Edward the Third, it appears to have been held by the abbot of Quarr, who received instructions to array all the able men, and to supply them with arms, and also to cause beacons and other signals to be erected on the hills, to convey speedy notice of the approach of an enemy.

‘ The office was also occasionally elective, as is instanced in an order entered on the rolls of parliament, in the fourteenth of Edward the Third, when an invasion being apprehended, the sheriff of Hampshire, together with the constable of Carisbrooke castle, were directed to convene the inhabitants of the island to elect a warden, who should take charge of the defence of the island



island during the king's pleasure; instead of one, three were elected, sir Bartholomew Lisle, John de Langford, lord of Chale, sir Theobald Russel, lord of Yaverland.'—

'— Three other wardens are found in the sixteenth year of the same king, when a precept was directed to Bartholomew Lisle, John de Kingston, and Henry Romyn, custodes of the island, commanding them to make inquisition what services were due from the inhabitants in time of war, of what nature, and from what lands and tenements.'

On the death of Humphrey, duke of Gloucester, lord of this island, in the twenty-fifth year of Henry the Sixth, the king appointed Henry Trenchard to the office of constable of the Castle of Carisbrooke, with a salary of *twenty pounds per annum*, as keeper of the forest of Parkhurst, and *four pence per day* for the pay of the porter of the castle.

In the third year of Henry the Eighth, the government of the island was conferred on sir James Worsley, keeper of the king's wardrobe, and master of the robes.

This gentleman being probably an ancestor of the respectable family to which the public is indebted for the present work, we think he has a just title to be particularly noticed in the history of the island, and shall therefore present our readers with the following part of the narrative.

' He was the younger brother of a very ancient family of that name in Lancashire, and had been many years page to Henry the Seventh; he was constituted captain of the island for life, with a salary of six shillings and nine pence per diem for himself, two shillings for his deputy, and six pence each for thirteen servants; he had besides a reversionary grant of the office of constable of Carisbrooke castle, when it should become vacant, and was by the same commission made captain of all the forts in the island. He was steward, surveyor, receiver, and bailiff of all the crown lands; and was either to retain his salary and allowances out of the moneys he received, or to take the same from the king's receiver in the county of Southampton. He was likewise constituted keeper of Carisbrooke Forest and Park, with a fee of two shillings per diem; and warden and master of the duckcoy of wild fowl, as well within the said park and forest there, as within and throughout the whole island. He was empowered to lease any of the king's houses, demesne lands, and farms, either by lease of years, or by copy of court roll for lives, where the lands have usually been passed in that manner; the old rent being reserved by such lease or copy. He had the return of all writs, the execution of process, and the office of sheriff within the said island, the sheriff of the county, or his officer, being excluded from acting there, unless in default of the captain; he was also clerk of the market, and coroner in the island.

Richard Worsley, esq. on the death of sir James his father, in the twenty-ninth of Henry the Eighth, succeeded him in the office of captain, and soon after had the honour of entertaining the king at his seat at Appuldurcombe. The king was attended by his favourite the lord Cromwell, then constable of Carisbrooke castle, which office was, on his lordship's attainder and execution, conferred on Mr. Worsley.

Five years after, the French, having failed in an attempt against our fleet, notwithstanding their superiority at sea, made a descent on the island, which they intended to take possession of; but were, by the bravery of the islanders, and good conduct of their captain, soon driven back to their ships, with the loss of their general, and a great many of their men. It was on this occasion that new forts were ordered to be erected for the protection of the island, which were executed under the direction of the captain; one of them was called Worsley's Tower: by his representations the inhabitants were prevailed on to provide a train of artillery for the defence of the island, at their own charges. He continued in office till the death of Edward the Sixth; but being zealous in promoting the Reformation, as appears by his acting as a commissioner for the sale of church plate on the suppression of religious houses, at the accession of queen Mary he resigned his offices, and Mr. Girling, a man of low extraction, succeeded him; of whom, although no particulars are recorded, yet it is to be presumed, that he was no ways unfavourable to a restoration of the Romish religion. On the queen's death, Richard Worsley was again reinstated. He was previously sent with lord Chidioc Paulet, son of the marquis of Winchester, and governor of Portsmouth, with a commission to survey and repair the fortifications there, and was joined with a gentleman of the name of Smith, in a like commission to put the forts in the Isle of Wight in a state of defence, as a French invasion was then apprehended; four months after this he received his commission as captain of the island, and among other instructions was ordered to introduce the use of harquebusses among the people; he was also to signify to the queen and council, wherein his legal authority proved deficient, that it might be taken into consideration: but this was unnecessary, he conducting himself with such affability and prudence, that the people readily complied with his directions, in whatever appeared to him necessary to guard them against an enemy; as is instanced by their providing the field pieces before mentioned, which were supplied by several of the parishes. He was likewise employed by the queen in fortifying the sea-coasts, being afterwards sent with sir Hugh Paulet, captain of the Isle of Jersey, and others, to survey and order forts for the protection of Jersey and Guernsey. In conformity with his instructions, he introduced the use of fire-arms in the Isle of Wight, and an armourer was settled in Carisbrooke castle, to make harquebusses, and to keep them in order.

The government of the Isle of Wight seems to have been usually considered as an office of great trust, and to have been



obtained only by particular access to the favour of the court. On the death of the former captain, the command of the island was bestowed on Edward Horsey, esq. soon afterwards knighted, a gentleman of an ancient family in Dorsetshire, and the great confidant of the earl of Leicester. We are informed, that the great plenty of hares and other game, with which the island is stored, is owing to his care: he is reported to have given a lamb for every hare that was brought to him from the neighbouring countries.

Sir Edward Horsey was succeeded by sir George Carey, afterwards lord Hunsdon, nearly related to queen Elizabeth; Henry, lord Hunsdon, his father, being nephew of queen Anne Boleyn. He was lord chamberlain of the household, one of the privy council, and a knight of the garter. He is the first captain, or warden, of the island that assumed the title of governor. It was suspected, from this alteration in his style, and from his general behaviour, that his intention was to subject the inhabitants of the island to the military power; but perhaps it may have proceeded entirely from the haughtiness of his disposition, by which he appears to have given general disgust to the gentlemen of the island. The historian justly observes, that his consciousness of support from government made him adopt the prudent orders given for the defence of the island in the reign of Edward the Third, not considering that those orders were issued with the consent of the inhabitants. On this occasion, the latter laid before the lords of council a representation, which, as our author remarks, may be considered as a little bill of rights of the island. It is entitled, Demands by the Gentlemen of the Isle of Wight for Reformation of a certain absolute Government lately assumed by the Captain there, tending to the Subversion of the Law, and to the taking away of the natural Freedom of the Inhabitants. This is said to be the first instance of any complaint exhibited by the inhabitants of the island against their captain, for exerting his authority in the cause of their protection. The remonstrance, however, procured the desired effect; for we are informed that the obnoxious powers, to which the inhabitants objected, were never afterwards claimed by any governor.

We are informed by sir Richard Worsley, that sir John Oglander, in his Memoirs, commends sir George Carey for residing in the castle of Carisbrooke, and for his great hospitality there; speaking also of the time of his government as the period when the island was in its most flourishing state. From those Memoirs we are favoured, in a  
note,

note, with the following extract, exhibiting a very striking description of the manners of the times.

“ I have heard, says sir John, and partly know it to be true, that not only heretofore there was no lawyer nor attorney in owre island, but in sir George Carey's time, an attorney coming in to settle in the island, was, by his command, with a pound of candles hanging att his breech lighted, with bells about his legs, hunted owte of the island : infomuch that oure ancestors lived here so quietly and securely, being neither troubled to London nor Winchester, so they seldom or never went owte of the island ; infomuch as when they went to London (thinking it an East India voyage), they always made their wills, supposing no trouble like to travaile.”

“ Sir John, in another part of his Memoirs, observes, that

“ The Isle of Wight, since my memory, is infinitely decayed ; for either it is by reason of so many attorneys that hath of late made this their habitation, and so by suites undone the country, (for I have known an attorney bring down after a tearm three hundred writts, I have also known twenty nisi prius of our country tried at our assizes, when as in the queen's time we had not six writts in a yeare, nor one nisi prius in six yeares) or else, wanting the good bargains they were wont to buy from men of war, who also vented our commoditys at very high prices ; and readie money was easie to be had for all things. Now peace and law hath beggered us all, so that within my memorie many of the gentlemen, and almost all the yeomanry are undone.

“ Be advised by me, have no suites at lawe, if it be possible : agree with thine adversary although it be with thy losse : for the expence of one tearme will be more than thy losse. Besides the neglect of thy time at home, thy absence from thy wife and children, so manie inconveniences hangeth upon a suite in lawe, that I advise thee, although thou has the better of it, let it be reconciled without law : at last twelve men or one must end it, let two honest ones do it at firste. This country was undone with it in king James his reign. Hazard death and all quarrels rather than let thy tongue make his master a slave.” MSS. Memoirs.

Sir John Oglander also relates, that in the government of the earl of Southampton, who immediately succeeded sir George Carey, and was universally esteemed for his affable and obliging behaviour, he had seen thirty or forty knights and gentlemen at bowls with his lordship on St. George's Down, where they had an ordinary twice every week.

In that part of the history which treats of the confinement of Charles the First in Carisbrooke Castle, we are presented with several interesting anecdotes not generally known ; but for which we refer our readers to the work. We shall only in-  
form



form them, that the unfortunate monarch's watch is now in the possession of James Worsley, esq. of Stenbury; the king having, on his journey to Hurst Castle, whither he was removed by the parliament, given it to Mr. Edward Worsley, as a token of his remembrance.

The fifth chapter contains an account of the boroughs of Newport, Newtown, and Yarmouth. The first charter of immunities granted to the borough of Newport, was from Richard de Redvers, earl of Devon, the son of earl Richard. Its exact date is not known; but the historian observes, that it must have been in the time of Henry the Second, as the earl died in the thirtieth year of that reign. This charter, we are informed, like most of that early period, is very concise, expressing no more than a grant of liberties in general terms. A second charter, which is in the usual style, was granted to this town by Isabella de Fortibus, countess of Devon. The latter of those afterwards received several royal confirmations. A charter of incorporation was granted to this borough by James the First, and another by Charles the Second. Newport stands nearly in the centre of the island, of which it is the capital; and is a well-built, neat town, lately paved in the modern manner, with footways on each side. Here is a considerable manufactory of starch, the duty of which annually amounts to at least one thousand pounds. Of this town, as well as of the boroughs of Newtown and Yarmouth, we are presented with a particular account, which seems to be drawn up with great correctness and precision.

The sixth chapter treats of the religious houses, their foundations, and endowments; and the seventh, of the parish-churches and chapels; their founders and endowments; besides the most considerable manors and seats, with their ancient lords and present proprietors.

This part of the work, distinguished also by great minuteness, and lively description, contains many particulars of historical and genealogical information, which have been collected from a variety of sources relative to British antiquities.—Whether this writer recites an anecdote, or delineates the beauties of a country seat, his narrative is generally clear, easy, and expressive; conveying an accurate idea of the object, without either the disgust which arises from uninteresting description, or from ostentatious amplification.

The various parts of the book are illustrated with a great number of copper-plates, particularly of ancient seals, and of gentlemen's seats, exclusive of an accurate map of the island, prefixed to the volume. But in a work conducted with so much perspicuity, and enriched with such materials  
of

of antiquarian research, those embellishments, however beautiful, are but secondary objects of regard.

The work is furnished with a valuable Appendix, containing no less than ninety different articles, relative either to the history or antiquities of the island. The first article, in this miscellaneous collection, is a list of the landholders in the Isle of Wight, with the valuation of the lands; extracted from Domesday Book. The following note, at the beginning of this article, is highly worthy of attention.

‘ Most of the writers on antiquity, as well as the lawyers, having been mistaken in the hide, which they all conclude to be a measure of land; it may be necessary to examine more particularly what is meant by a hide of land. If lord Coke and others, who think it was the same with a carucate, had considered duly how the hides and carucates appear in Domesday book, they never could have been betrayed into that error: it being obvious that hides and carucates are there distinguished from each other. The order of that book is, 1. To note the possessor. 2. The name of the lands. 3. The rate or value of the lands in hides. 4. The quantity in carucates, or plough lands, virgates, or yard lands, bovates, &c. After these particulars, we see the houses, servants, cottagers, woods, &c. The number of carucates almost always exceeds that of the hides; in one place more carucates make the hide than another, which difference arises either from the quality of the land, or perhaps sometimes from the favour of the commissioners in making the rates. We find also, that several manors are rated lower, or at a less number of hides, in this tax book, than they had been rated in the time of Edward the Confessor: and some are said not to be rated, because they were in the king’s hands. For instance, the manor of Boucomb, one of the most considerable manors in the island, which had paid for four hides in the Confessor’s time, is here not rated at all; and yet it is said to contain fifteen carucates of land. From hence the hide plainly appears to be the discretionary rate, or valuation fixed to ascertain the Danegeld, which tax was also termed hidage; and the carucate, to be the content of the land in acres.’

From a subsequent passage in this article, relative to Watchingwood, sir Richard Worsley remarks the mistake of some historians, who affirm that Woodstock Park, made by king Henry I. was the first park in England.

We shall conclude our account of this work with observing, that it discovers an extent of research, not only seldom to be met with in the most copious productions of this kind, but such as is both suitable and sufficient for elucidating the history of an island, that has hitherto been so imperfectly treated



treated by any topographical writer. Several subjects, relative to history and antiquity, are ascertained with great judgment, as well as accurate information; and the whole is founded upon authorities of the most satisfactory nature.

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*Loose Hints upon Education, chiefly concerning the Culture of the Heart.* 8vo. 5s. boards. Murray.

AS this volume is avowedly the production of lord Kaimes, author of the *Elements of Criticism*, and *Sketches of the History of Man*, works of acknowledged merit, we sat down to the perusal of it with much prepossession in its favour, and entertained the most sanguine hopes of being both amused and instructed. Sorry we are to say, that we were grievously disappointed, as it appeared, on an impartial examination, that the work contained nothing new, solid, entertaining, or satisfactory; the whole being only a collection of vague, and desultory hints, common-place reflections, trifling advice, and old stories, heaped together without order or precision, in a coarse and slovenly style. Never, indeed, do we remember to have seen a subject so serious and important as the education of children, treated in a manner so careless and uninteresting.

In our author's second section on the management of children in the first stage of life, we meet with the following deep and most sagacious reflection.

'Some children are by nature rash and impetuous: a much greater number are shy and timid. The disposition of a child appears early; and both extremes ought to be corrected whenever an opportunity occurs. Fear is a passion implanted in our nature to warn us of danger, in order to guard against it. When moderate so as to raise our activity only, without overwhelming us, it is a most salutary passion: but when it swells to excess, which it is apt to do in a timid disposition, far from contributing to safety, it stupifies the man, and renders him incapable of action.'

Surely there wants no ghost, nor lord Kaimes, to tell us this; to dwell upon such trite and obvious truths, with an air of consequence and importance, is truly ridiculous: nothing can be more puerile than the following passage.

'Will I be thought to refine too much when I maintain, that a habit of cheerfulness acquired during infancy, will contribute to make a face beautiful? A savage mind produces savage manners; and these in conjunction produce a harsh and rugged coun-

countenance. Hence it is that a national face improves gradually, with the manners of the people. Listen to this ye mothers, with respect especially to your female children: you will find that cheerfulness is a greater beautifier than the finest pearl powder.'

If any of our readers are fond of pretty little stories, to repeat to their children, we recommend to them the following.

'A boy about the age of ten, says to his father, "Papa, give me some money. There is a shilling, will that do? No." "There's a guinea. Thank you papa." The gentleman discovered, that it was given to a woman who had been delivered of twins, and was obliged to hire a nurse for one of them. A boy of five years, observing that a gentleman playing at cards did not pay what he lost, and concluding that he had no money, begged some from his father to give to the gentleman. A boy between seven and eight, of a noble family, strayed accidentally into a hut where he saw a poor woman with a sick child on her knee. Struck with compassion, he instantly gave her all the money he had; carried to her from the herb market, turnips and potatoes, with bread and scraps from his father's kitchen. The parents enchanted with their son, took the poor family off his hand. Two or three years after, he saved the whole of his weekly allowance, till it amounted to eleven or twelve shillings, and purchased a Latin dictionary, which he sent to a comrade of his at the grammar school. Many other acts of goodness are recorded of this boy in the family. Can there be conceived a misfortune that will sink deeper into the heart of affectionate parents, than the death of such a child? It wrings my heart to think of it.

'Ostendent terris hunc tantum fata, neque ultra.  
Esse finent.

Heu, miserande puer! si qua fata aspera rumpas,  
Tu Marcellus eris.'

Here, gentle reader, you see a proof of the author's great learning? Was ever this celebrated passage in Virgil so happily quoted, and so well applied?—Immediately after this, we are presented with a new method of paying the poor's rates.

'There is no branch, says he, of education more neglected than the training of young persons to be charitable. And yet were this virtue instilled into children, susceptible of deep impressions, a legal provision for the poor would be rendered unnecessary: it would relieve England from the poor rates, a grievous burden that undermines both industry and morals.'

This



This convenient mode of paying the poor's rates, will, we hope, meet with encouragement from the prime minister; we know not whether, if properly attended to and improved upon, it might not, in time, discharge the national debt.

To those who are fond of good instruction and genteel compliment, we recommend the following lines.

'Exercise is not more salutary to the body than to the mind' (this observation is shrewd, no doubt, and perfectly new) what then? Why, then—'When your little boy wants to have any thing done, let him first try what he can do himself. A savage having none to apply to for advice or direction, is reduced to judge for himself at every turn: he makes not a single step without thinking before hand what is to follow; by which means, a young savage is commonly endowed with more penetration, than an Oxford or Cambridge scholar.'

Nothing can be more obliging than the high opinion which our author, in his last sentence, seems to entertain of the two universities.

In page 97 this discerning writer informs us, that

'If it were the fashion among people of rank to dress their children plain, it would have a wonderful good effect, not only on themselves, but on their inferiors. Young people would learn to despise fine cloaths, and to value themselves on good behaviour: neatness and elegance would be the sole aim in dress.'

This is most indisputably true; but how shall we ever persuade them to it? not, we fear, by the following rule:

'As soon, says our author, as children are susceptible of verbal instruction, let them know that the chief use of cloaths is to keep them warm; and that to be distinguished by their finery, will make them either be envied or ridiculed.'

And does lord Kaims really think that children in the *third* stage (for this is amongst his instructions for *them*) will be so foolish as to believe us when we tell them that the only *use* of *cloaths* is to keep them warm?

Of such remarks, and of such instructions, consists the whole of this performance, which, instead of that good sense and penetration, that critical sagacity and elegant taste, which distinguished our author's former works, presents us with nothing but a melancholy instance of intellectual decay, and the vapid dregs of exhausted genius.

*Elements of Elocution.* By J. Walker. Two Volumes. 8vo. 12s. Robinson.

**T**HIS work is the substance of a course of lectures on the art of reading, delivered at several colleges in the university of Oxford.

It is not merely a collection of sentences, and independent observations; but a regular system, founded on certain principles, which the author has illustrated and supported with great industry, modesty, and ingenuity.

The elocution, which is the object of this essay, is the pronunciation, which is given to words, when they are arranged into sentences, and form a discourse. The mode of pronouncing single words, independently on one another, is no part of his plan.

As the sense of an author is the first object of reading, he finds it necessary to enquire into those divisions and subdivisions of a sentence, which are employed to fix and ascertain its meaning. This leads him to consider the doctrine of punctuation. The use of the comma, being perhaps attended with more difficulty, than that of the other points, he has considered it with particular attention, and laid down a great variety of rules for its proper application. The greatest part of these directions are undoubtedly right; but, we apprehend, that if certain *general* rules could be adopted, the business of punctuation, or, which is the same thing, that of pausing in reading, would be more easily understood, and more regularly observed.

Sentences, in general, require a comma, or a pause, where there is a *connective* particle, or a word, *introducing* a new member, which may be separated from the preceding part.

1. All conjunctions are, as it were, the joints, where the body of a sentence ought to be divided. For instance:

I am convinced, *that* it is a mistake. I am informed, *that* you are the author. I wish to know, *whether* you intend to go to Italy, or not. I shall be satisfied, *when* I have seen the original. I shall keep it, *if* you please. I shall stay, *but* you may return. He has finished it, *as* you directed. I will set out immediately, *lest* I should be too late. He will continue there, *till* the end of August, &c.

2. Personal pronouns may generally admit a comma, or a small pause, before them: as, the author, *who* wrote on that subject. The tree, *which* grows in the garden. The lady, *whom* I saw at Paris. The fruit of that forbidden tree, *whose* mortal taste. The folio volume, *that* lies on the table, &c.

3. If



3. If a preposition is prefixed to the pronoun, the pause is before the preposition. For instance: the room, *in which* I am sitting. The gentleman, *with whom* I am acquainted. The country, *from which* he came. The prize, *for which* he contends, &c.

There are many rules, mentioned by this writer, which deserve attention, and to which we must refer those readers, who wish to form a competent idea of punctuation. We have suggested these three as hints only, which may open the way to a farther investigation of the subject.

Besides the pauses, which indicate a greater or less separation of the parts of a sentence, and a conclusion of the whole, there are certain inflections of voice, accompanying those pauses, which are as necessary to the sense of the sentence, as the pauses themselves. Any method therefore, which can ascertain those inflections, and convey them to the understanding of the reader, by certain written marks and distinctions, cannot fail of being acceptable to those, who wish to become proficient in the art of elocution.

A laudable attempt to discover something of this nature has led our author into a distinction of the voice, which, though often mentioned by musicians, has been but little noticed by teachers of reading; which is, that distinction of the voice into the upward and downward slide, into which all speaking sounds may be resolved. The moment, says he, I admitted this distinction I found I had possession of the quality of the voice I wanted.

‘These two slides, or inflexions of voice are the axes, as it were, on which the force, variety, and harmony of speaking turns. They may be considered as the great outlines of pronunciation; and if these outlines can be tolerably conveyed to a reader, they must be of nearly the same use to him, as the rough draught of a picture is to a pupil in painting. This then we shall attempt to accomplish, by adducing some of the most familiar phrases in the language, and pointing out the inflexions which every ear, however unpractised, will naturally adopt in pronouncing them. These phrases, which are in every body’s mouth, will become a kind of *data*, or principles, to which the reader must constantly be referred, when he is at a loss for the precise sound, that is understood by these different inflexions; and these familiar sounds, it is presumed, will sufficiently instruct him.’—

— Much of that force, variety, and harmony which we hear in speaking arises from two different modes of uttering the words of which a sentence is composed; the one, that which terminates the word with an inflexion of voice that rises, and the other, that which terminates the word with an inflexion of voice

that falls. By rising, or falling, is not meant the pitch of voice in which the whole word is pronounced, or that loudness or softness which may accompany any pitch; but that upward or downward slide which the voice makes when the pronunciation of a word is finishing; and which may, therefore, not improperly be called the rising and falling inflexion.

So important is a just mixture of these two inflexions, that the moment they are neglected, our pronunciation becomes forceless and monotonous; if the sense of a sentence requires the voice to adopt the rising inflexion, on any particular word, either in the middle, or at the end of a phrase, variety and harmony demand the falling inflexion on one of the preceding words; and on the other hand, if emphasis, harmony, or a completion of sense requires the falling inflexion on any word, the word immediately preceding, almost always demands the rising inflexion; so that these inflexions of voice are in an order nearly alternate.

This is very observable in reading a sentence, when we have mistaken the connexion between the members, either by supposing the sense is to be continued, when it finishes, or supposing it finished when it is really to be continued: for in either of these cases, before we have pronounced the last word, we find it necessary to return pretty far back to some of the preceding words, in order to give them such inflexions as are suitable to those which the sense requires on the succeeding words. Thus, in pronouncing the speech of Portius in Cato, which is generally mispointed, as in the following example:

“Remember what our father oft has told us,  
The ways of heav’n are dark and intricate,  
Puzzled in mazes and perplex’d in errors;  
Our understanding traces them in vain,  
Lost and bewilder’d in the fruitless search:  
Nor sees with how much art the windings turn,  
Nor where the regular confusion ends.”

If, I say, from not having considered this passage, we run the second line into the third, by suspending the voice at *intricate*, and dropping it at *errors*, we find a very improper meaning conveyed; and if in recovering ourselves from this improper pronunciation, we take notice of the different manner in which we pronounce the second and third lines, we shall find, that not only the last word of these lines, but that every word alters its inflexion: for, when we perceive, that by mistaking the pause, we have misconceived the sense, we find it necessary to begin the line again, and pronounce every word differently, in order to make it harmonious.

But though these two inflexions of voice run through almost every word of which a sentence is composed, they are no where so perceptible as at a long pause, or where the sense of the words requires an emphasis: in this case, if we do but attend  
nicely



nicely to that turn of the voice, which finishes this emphatical word, or that member of a sentence where we pause, we shall soon perceive the different inflexion with which these words are pronounced.

‘ In order to make this different inflexion of voice more easily apprehended ; it may not, perhaps, be useless to attend to the following directions. Let us suppose we are to pronounce the following sentence :

‘ Does Cæsar deserve fame or blame ?

‘ This sentence, it is presumed, will, at first sight, be pronounced with the proper inflexions of voice, by every one that can barely read ; and if the reader will but narrowly watch the sounds of the words *fame* and *blame*, he will have an example of the two inflexions here spoken of : *fame* will have the rising, and *blame* the falling inflexion : but to make this distinction still clearer, if instead of pronouncing the word *fame* slightly, he does but give it a strong emphatic force, and let it drawl off the tongue for some time before the sound finishes, he will find it slide upwards and end in a rising tone ; if he makes the same experiment on the word *blame*, he will find the sound slide downwards, and end in a falling tone ; and this drawling pronunciation, though it lengthens the sounds beyond their proper duration, does not alter them essentially ; the same inflexions are preserved as in the common pronunciation ; and the distinction is as real in one mode of pronouncing as in the other, though not so perceptible.

‘ Every pause, of whatever kind, must necessarily adopt one of these two inflexions, or continue in a monotone : thus when we ask a question without the interrogative words, we naturally adopt the rising inflexion on the last word : as,

‘ Can Cæsar deserve blame ? Impossible !

Here *blame*, the last word of the question, has the rising inflexion, and *impossible*, with the note of admiration, the falling : the comma, or that suspension of voice generally annexed to it, which marks a continuation of the sense, is most frequently accompanied by the rising inflexion, as in the following sentence :

‘ If Cæsar deserves blame, he ought to have no fame.

Here we find the word *blame*, marked with the comma, has exactly the same inflexion of voice as the same word in the interrogative sentence immediately preceding ; the only difference is, that the rising inflexion slides higher at the interrogation than at the comma ; especially if it is pronounced with emphasis.

‘ The three other points, namely, the semicolon, colon, and period, adopt either the rising or falling inflexion as the sense or harmony requires, though in different degrees of elevation and depression.’

The author proceeds to illustrate these principles by a great variety of examples, shewing, what slide or inflexion of the voice is suited to express the several pauses and distinctions of punctuation, with clearness, strength, and propriety; and what pronunciation is required by emphasis, variety, harmony, and passion.

This subject leads him insensibly into intricacies and distinctions, whither perhaps few of his readers will be able to follow him; they who are able will undoubtedly profit by his ingenious speculations.

The following observation concerning the modulation of the voice in public speaking, is just and important.

‘The safest rule is to begin, as it were, with those of the assembly that are nearest to us; and if the voice be but articulate, however low the key may be, it will still be audible; and those who have a sufficient strength of voice for a public auditory, find it so much more difficult to bring *down* than to raise the pitch, that they will not wonder I employ my chief care to guard against an error by far the most common, as well as the most dangerous.

‘Few speakers have a voice too weak for the public, if properly managed; as audibility depends much more on a proper pitch of voice, accompanied with distinctness of articulation, than on a boisterous and sonorous loudness; this is evident from the distinctness with which we hear a good actress in the easy chit chat of genteel comedy; nay, even a speech aside, which is little more than a whisper, though uttered in a lower tone of voice, is so articulated by a judicious actor, as to be equally audible with the loudest bursts of passion. A voice, therefore, is seldom inaudible from its want of force, so much as from its want of modulation; and this modulation depends so much on not suffering the voice to begin above its natural pitch, that too much care cannot be taken to guard against it.

‘Much, undoubtedly, will depend on the size and structure of the place we speak in: some are so immensely large, as many of our churches and cathedrals, that the voice is nearly as much dissipated as in the open air; and often with the additional inconvenience of a thousand confused echos and re-echos. Here a loud and vociferous speaker will render himself unintelligible in proportion to his exertion of voice: as departing and commencing sounds will encounter each other, and defeat every intention of distinctness and harmony.

‘Nothing but good articulation will make a speaker audible in this situation; and a judicious attention to that tone of voice which is most suitable to the size and imperfections of the place.’

As an essay towards reducing to practice the system of instructions, laid down in the present work, the author has attempted



tempted to mark them, as they occurred in Mrs. Yates's pronunciation of Mr. Sheridan's Monody in Memory of Mr. Garrick. The horizontal line expresses that monotone, or sameness of voice, which, he says, good pronouncers of verse often introduce to the greatest advantage. 'This monotone, he adds, generally falls into a lower key, and, as it is naturally expressive of awe, amazement, and admiration, is exceedingly suitable to solemn, grand, and magnificent subjects.'

'If dying excellence' deserves a tear',  
If fond remembrance' still is cherished here',  
Can we persist to bid your sorrows flow  
For fabled sufferers, and delusive woe?  
Or with quaint smiles dismiss the plaintive strain,  
Point the quick jest, indulge the comic vein  
Ere yet to buried Roscius we assign—  
One kind regret—one tributary line!

His fame' requires we act a tenderer part:  
His memory' claims the tear you gave his art!

The general voice, the meed of mournful verse,  
The splendid sorrows that adorned his hearse,  
The throng that mourn'd as their dead favourite pass'd,  
The grac'd respect that claim'd him to the last,  
While Shakspeare's image from its hallow'd base,  
Seem'd to prescribe the grave, and point the place,—  
Nor these,—nor all the sad regrets that flow  
From fond fidelity's domestic woe,—  
So much are Garrick's praise—so much his due—  
As on this spot—one tear bestow'd by you.'

It is impossible, as our author observes, to convey that justness of pause, that melody of voice, and that dignity of manner, which distinguish a good speaker. These are among the perishable beauties described in the Monody. But there are beauties of an inferior kind, which are not so incommunicable; and they, who attentively peruse what is said on the subject in this work, will not think *that* notation, which conveys to us a variety of just and pleasing inflexions, though unaccompanied with every other excellence, either an incurious or a useless discovery.

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*Experiments and Observations relating to the various Branches of Natural Philosophy; with a Continuation of the Observations on Air. The Second Volume. By Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. &c. 8vo. 6s. Johnson.*

WE inform the public, with great pleasure, that this, though the fifth, is not likely to be the last volume, of Dr. Priestley's philosophical productions. In his preface he

feeds our expectation with the most flattering promises—He tells us, that in consequence of some happy revolution in his circumstances, he may be considered as entering upon a new period of life; and that the volume before us is the result of an inclination to close his philosophical accounts, as they stand at present, and to open a *new one*. We feel warm in the hope that the success of his singular toil and ingenuity may be in proportion to the advantageous change by which they are favoured. We shall, however, be amply satisfied if he proceeds with the rapidity and splendour which have hitherto crowned his exertions.

In the numerous catalogue of Dr. Priestley's discoveries there is not one more curious, or better supported by the evidence of experiments, than that which evinces the great use of vegetables, in purifying the atmosphere after it has been corrupted by the respiration of animals, and other circumstances which render it noxious. The first section of this volume confirms what he has before said on this subject: his preceding volume informed the public of a singular property, by which the willow plant absorbed air of different kinds, but inflammable air in the greatest abundance: he has since made a variety of experiments, from which we learn the following particulars. 1. Inflammable air, after the absorption of the willow plant, is discharged purified from its phlogiston by the plant, which had retained this noxious principle for its own nourishment. 2. He confirms an hypothesis which he had formerly supported, viz. that nitrous air is noxious as well to vegetable as to animal life. 3. It appears from this section that in some instances the willow plant may really absorb a greater quantity of inflammable air than it can digest. In this case, the air, which it discharges after absorption, is a mixture of pure and inflammable air; for, by applying a candle to this mixture, it goes off with a loud explosion. 4. The Doctor very pertinently points out the wisdom of nature, as it is evident from the growth of this willow plant in marshy places, where a great quantity of inflammable air is continually discharged. Sect. II. may, we think, be considered as the most curious and entertaining part of this work. In an appendix to his last volume, Dr. Priestley announced his discovery of that great influence which light has upon water, or upon the air, which, in consequence of being exposed to the sun, is produced from that water. Dr. Ingenhousz pursued the enquiries which this discovery suggested, and wrote a whole volume, in which we are by no means convinced of his making proper acknowledgements to the source whence he derived his materials. Our readers may remember, that Dr. Priestley filled two jars with  
pump



pump water, one of which was placed in the dark and the other exposed to the sun. In the former, after continuing for some time in the same circumstances, no air was produced. But in the latter, after standing a few days, a green matter was deposited, whence a quantity of air was emitted, which upon examination was found to be much purer than common air. The Doctor informs us, in this volume, that the green matter which appeared in this experiment, is discovered to be a vegetable, whose form and other peculiarities were most clearly seen through a microscope, by his friend Mr. Bewley.

An acquaintance with the nature of this green matter has led the Doctor to prove most clearly, that its operations resemble those of other vegetables in open air: that, by feeding on the noxious principle contained in the air, with which the water is impregnated, it purifies that air. His experiments produced in defence of this hypothesis are, in our opinion, decisive. By exposing water which contained no air to the light in a jar inverted in mercury, no effects were produced. By putting a quantity of the green matter, taken from water which had discharged all its air, into a jar of fresh water, pure air was produced as copiously as before. And, farther, by examining the air in any particular water, before and after the green matter was deposited from, or placed in it, he found that the green matter had always purified that air. Aquatics of different kinds were found, on being introduced into a jar of water and exposed to the sun, to produce effects similar to those already enumerated: a handful of these water-plants were put into a receiver containing eighty ounce measures of water, inverted in a basin of the same; after standing three days, they had emitted eight ounce measures of air, which was found to be much purer than common air; from which, as well as from other experiments, the Doctor infers, that in these experiments the air is generally in proportion to the capacity of the vessel; and that during the whole process it seldom exceeds one-eighth of the quantity of water. The Doctor concludes this section with observing, that the experiments recited in it may help us to explain, why water, after issuing from the earth and employed in floating meadow land, becomes in time exhausted of its power of fertilizing it. When it issues from the earth, it contains air of an impure kind; that is, air loaded with phlogiston. This principle the roots of the grass extract from it, so that it is then replete with dephlogisticated air, and consequently the plants it afterwards comes into contact with find nothing in it to feed upon.—I believe it is commonly imagined that the water deposits something in its course upon the earth

of its bed, and by that means becomes effete and incapable of nourishing plants.'—

Dr. Priestley, in his third section, gives the distinguishing properties of the plant which forms the green matter; its length proves it not to be the *conserva fontinalis*; its seeds float invisibly in the air, and will penetrate into water through the smallest apertures in the glass. It feeds upon phlogiston, and grows in great abundance when putrid flesh is put into a jar of water. But the air in the water may be so much loaded with the noxious principle as to prevent the air oozing out of the plant from being pure. The green matter will, moreover, appear in water impregnated with salt, or nitre; but it seems probable that water impregnated with fixed air, will not admit of its growth, till the fixed air has escaped. Dr. Priestley concludes this section with an experiment designed to prove in what part of the vessel the seeds of this plant would first fall, and *we are astonished* he should not repeat the experiment, but leave a decision to conjecture, which might have been made with such little trouble.

We cannot give a better general view of the contents of the fourth section than that which the Doctor himself has given.

'Having very soon observed that this green vegetable matter, or *water moss*, was planted and propagated with more ease, and produced air more copiously, in some circumstances than in others, and that various substances, animal or vegetable, were favourable to it, and others of both kinds unfavourable; I tried a great variety of them, and shall recite such of the particulars as appear in any measure remarkable, and such as may furnish hints for the farther investigation of what relates to this subject.

'The most remarkable circumstance attending these experiments was, that some substances, concerning which I could have had no such expectation a priori, instead of admitting the growth of this plant, when they began to putrify and dissolve, which was the case with most vegetable and animal substances, yielded from themselves a very great quantity of inflammable air; and it made no difference whether they were placed in the sun or in the shade. Whereas other substances, which, if they had been confined by quicksilver, would have yielded, by putrefaction, inflammable air also, together with a portion of fixed air, only supplied the proper pabulum for this green matter, and the whole produce was pure dephlogisticated air; the phlogiston, which in other circumstances would have been converted into inflammable air, now going to the nourishment of this plant, which, by the influence of light, yields such pure air.'

It should be attended to, that, in the numerous experiments following these observations, of all the materials employed,  
onions



onions were those which admitted of the green matter with the greatest difficulty. In one part of this section Dr. Priestley informs us, that he found a piece of cabbage, which he had exposed in his jar for some time, very soft but not at all offensive. He supposes that the green matter had absorbed all the *phlogiston* of this substance, to which *alone* he ascribes the offensiveness of smells.—What reason is there for acceding to this theory? In that general decomposition which takes place, when a body begins to part with its phlogiston, many other component parts of the body fly off. And why should we ascribe to the phlogiston what may (as far as we know) with equal propriety be ascribed to any of the other ingredients which are let loose at the same time? We know of no experiment which gives a decision in this case, but should rather wave acceding to the Doctor's hypothesis, till by the same hypothesis he can account for the different smells which proceed from different bodies in putrefaction. Ought not the putrid smell of fish to be the same with the putrid smell of flesh, if they depended on the operations of the same simple agent? It may be said, that in these different cases, the phlogiston is differently modified. We think this language, which has of late been too commonly used, is nothing more than a specious mode of concealing, under a mere name, the ignorance we cannot remove: it is, in other words, employing the occult quality of the ancients, and is equally trifling as to the conviction or satisfaction which it gives an inquisitive mind. But, perhaps, the Doctor may have reasons for adopting this theory, to which we may be utter strangers; we have, therefore, only to wish that he had referred us to them, or laid them before the public.

The next section is nearly connected with those sections we have already reviewed; it contains a number of experiments relating to the effect of exposing animal substances in water to the light and in the dark. It appears that fish have the property, in a singular degree, of affording a nidus to the seeds of the green matter. It is the animal substance which of all others is most likely to putrify in water, and probably it may derive its power of producing the green matter from a wise appointment of the Creator. Dr. Priestley observes, that the effect of light upon bodies putrefying in water may have a very salutary tendency in hot countries.—Undoubtedly, if the doctor could prove that in hot countries the smallest part of the putrified bodies were immersed in water; and again, immersed in such a manner (which is by no means probable) that the surfaces of these bodies were never exposed to the air; for in such circumstances it is well known, from an experiment recited in  
this

this very section, that air, instead of being purified, is actually corrupted by the perishing body.

Though we are indeed most highly entertained by the instructive catalogue of experiments given in section sixth, we are yet by no means convinced of the truth they are designed to establish. The Doctor meant, in this section, to pave the way for determining the different degrees of nutrition in different bodies. With this view he collects the air emitted by them in a state of putrefaction, which he finds to be in general inflammable, mixed with a portion of fixed air. The substances which the Doctor employs in his experiments are onions, potatoes, carrots, parsnips, and other vegetables which we most commonly feed upon. But why not extend his trials to a much greater number of bodies? this was absolutely necessary to give the least plausibility to his theory; for, perhaps, *such bodies as are not nutritive* might yield the same kind of air, and in equal abundance. We cannot even suspect the contrary, till such experiments are first made; besides, what evidence have we to believe, that the nutritive quality in bodies is in proportion to the inflammable air they emit, or to the phlogiston they contain? we consider this as a step which should have been first established before the least dependence can be placed on another, which is wholly supported by it. From the testimony of universal experience it must be allowed, that animal are more nutritive than vegetable substances. And as we proceeded, we indulged the hope that the Doctor, in his next section, would have subjected animal substances to the same circumstances as those in which, agreeable to his preceding section, he had putrefied vegetable substances; but he unexpectedly, and for what reason we cannot guess, changes the mode of his experiments: we hence derive a very entertaining list of facts, shewing the result of putrefying flesh in jars inverted in quicksilver. And though the reader may not be altogether satisfied with the Doctor's theory of nutrition, he will yet find in this section many interesting observations. Amongst others the absolute necessity of water, and that in a considerable quantity, to the production of some airs, viz. nitrous, fixed, and inflammable air; but while this appears to be the consequence of several experiments, the Doctor fairly acknowledges, that when water has entered into the composition of air, he knows no method of discovering and restoring it. We know of no fact which militates against this theory excepting *one*, which, we dare say, the Doctor's experience will readily bring to his memory; the more concentrated the marine acid is, the greater abundance of inflammable air will it produce, if there is dissolved



dissolved in it any quantity of tin or iron. We cannot account for this phenomenon, on the supposition that water enters so abundantly into the composition of inflammable air.

There are few speculations more curious than those which have a tendency to shew the different degrees of phlogistication of which air is susceptible, and through which it passes before it comes to its most putrid or noxious state. Dr. Priestley has plainly shewn that the last, or that state in which phlogiston is united to air with the strongest affinity, is the inflammable. He has pointed out some of the gradual purifications which reduce it from this state into that of phlogisticated air, or that in which a candle is extinguished without any attendant explosion. Section VIII. presents us with some curious instances of this process. Dr. Priestley had observed, that by introducing a mixture of iron-filings and sulphur into a jar of nitrous air, a quantity of inflammable air was generally produced: he had formerly supposed that this change was owing to some revolution in the constitution of the nitrous air; but with his usual manliness and openness, he retracts this opinion, and gives a variety of experiments, shewing that the change must depend upon a generation of inflammable air, from the sulphur and the iron-filings. But the same experiments, to use his own words, have led him also to the observation, 'that in this, and many other cases of the diminution of common air by phlogistic processes, a true inflammable air is first produced, and in its *nascent* state (as it may be called) is immediately decomposed, previous to the phlogistication of the common air.' We shall repeat some of the leading facts which confirm these observations. A mixture of iron filings and sulphur was introduced, while it was actually emitting inflammable air, into a quantity of common air; and in the interval of a month, it diminished the common air considerably: the mixture was then taken out of the common air, and upon trial was still found to emit inflammable air. There can be no doubt that the common air in this experiment had been diminished and phlogisticated by an addition of inflammable air in its *nascent* state, or rather after it was *completely* though but *newly* formed. Dr. Priestley wished to see whether a *strong heat* would not produce this change in inflammable, when already made and mixed with common air: a very simple experiment decided the contrary. A mixture of common and inflammable air, however, after being kept a long time, discovered some little change, but still there was always a residue of inflammable air: this change was produced much more completely, by admitting the inflammable by small quantities into the common air.

Dr.

Dr. Priestley, in Section IX. examines and refutes two very important errors, which some of his philosophical friends had embraced and endeavoured to support. Dr. Ingenhoufz asserts, that a quantity of air issues from the skin, and that perspiration, like respiration, phlogisticates air. Dr. Priestley proves to a demonstration, that this air does not issue from the skin, but from the water in which any part of the body subjected to trial is immersed. If you place a piece of glass or metal in water containing air, in an exhausted receiver, the phenomena, which Dr. Ingenhoufz describes may be seen, in which case it is easily shewn that the air comes from the water itself; for if the water contain no air, and the surface of the glass or metal be wiped, the appearance, which Dr. Ingenhoufz lays so much stress upon, cannot be produced. Dr. Ingenhoufz's supposition, that water exhausted of its air is not proper for this experiment, because it absorbs all the air as readily as it issues from the skin, is very decisively refuted by Dr. Priestley. 1. If the experiment be made in water, this must be the only unexceptionable way of doing it. 2. Water by no means absorbs any air so fast as to give the least plausibility to Dr. Ingenhoufz's supposition. And, 3. This air, agreeable to Dr. Ingenhoufz's supposition, is phlogisticated, which we well know is of all others absorbed with the greatest difficulty. 4. 'Where are the air vessels necessary for the purpose pointed out by Dr. Ingenhoufz, and what is their origin and connexion with other parts of the system; the present state of anatomy indicates nothing on the subject.' To place however the matter beyond all doubt, Dr. Priestley expelled all its air, by boiling it out of a portion of water, and plunged his arm into it; but though he continued his arm in this situation for half an hour, not a single bubble of air made its appearance. The Doctor observes, that he might have examined whether this water contained any air besides what it might have been supposed to have imbibed from the atmosphere in this interval, but that he neglected to do it, declaring *his confidence that it was unnecessary*. We are really astonished at the Doctor's carelessness in this particular instance. Why should he omit as a trifle, and leave to supposition, a fact which would have removed every shadow of an argument for the hypothesis he was endeavouring to overturn, especially as the toil it would have cost him must be so very inconsiderable? Another error which Dr. Priestley very ably corrects in this section is a very gross one espoused by Mr. Cruikshanks, who has declared, that perspiration actually phlogisticates air in some degree: he builds this opinion on a very slight foundation indeed, on a single experiment, in which water became turbid (after having kept  
his



his leg in it for some time) when he mixed it with lime-water; one fact related by Dr. Priestley is sufficient to overturn this wild theory, which depends on the false principle, that fixed and phlogisticated are one and the same air. Dr. Priestley tied a bladder round his leg, with his leg in this confinement he slept a whole night, and the next morning examined the air in the bladder, which he found to be equally pure with common air.

[*To be continued.*]

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*The New Annual Register, or General Repository of History, Politics, and Literature, for the Year 1780. To which is prefixed, A short Review of the principal Transactions of the present Reign. 8vo. 5s. 3d. in Boards. Robinson.*

THE usefulness of a Register, containing a particular account of the different transactions, and the multitude of miscellaneous objects, worthy of notice, which occur in the year, is too obvious to require elucidation. In a work of so extensive a nature, next to fidelity of historical detail, the qualities most essentially requisite are judgement in the selection of the materials, and perspicuity in the arrangement; without the former of which, the volume would become only a mass of frivolous compilation; and without the latter, a confused and disgusting aggregate of misplaced information, and mis-conducted entertainment.

In the execution of the New Annual Register, we have the satisfaction to find, that due regard has been paid to those important considerations. The historical part appears to be written with a freedom of sentiment, unbiassed by political prejudices; and the various articles, relative to biographical anecdotes and characters, manners of nations, philosophical papers, antiquities, literature, &c. are not only selected from the best authorities, but digested in a clear, methodical, and advantageous point of view,

A concise and general history of the literature of the year is also given, accompanied with observations, which will serve to ascertain the present state of learning in Britain; and to shew how far the genius, knowledge, and taste of the nation, are in a declining, or a progressive condition; a circumstance not only interesting to curiosity, but which may, eventually, be productive of consequences much more important.

This being the first volume of the work, it commences with a short review of the principal transactions of the present reign; from which, as a specimen, we have taken the following extract.

King

King George the Second concluded his days on the twenty-fifth of October, 1760, with a glory not usual to princes, and especially to those who have reigned for many years, and died at a very advanced age. His abilities, if not of the first rate, were respectable, and his virtues rendered him the object of general esteem. There was a moderation in his political temper and conduct which suited him to the government of a free people; and during the whole of his reign, his subjects enjoyed as great, if not a greater portion of happiness than is common to nations.

But it was not solely, or principally, owing to these things that he went out of the world with so much lustre. A considerable part of his reign had not a little been disturbed with political disputes: and events had happened, both foreign and domestic, which were sufficiently mortifying, and which, at times, affected his popularity. In the war that was concluded by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, he had not been successful; and, during the course of that war, his throne had been shaken by a rebellion, which, however, served, in the end, to render it more firm, and to manifest to him the real affection of the great majority of his people. His natural attachment to Hanover, which was believed to have an undue influence upon his negotiations and engagements on the continent, had been a repeated subject of complaint: and the commencement of the war, in which the kingdom was involved at his decease, had been attended with several disagreeable events. The principal circumstances that spread such a glory around him at his death, were the victories with which his latter years had been crowned; and which were owing to a great minister, who had been forced upon him, much against his will, by the voice of the public; but to whom, when he had been obliged to receive him, he gave his full confidence and support. The spirit and abilities of this man, which bore down all opposition both at court and in parliament, which carried the nation along with him, and infused a noble emulation into our naval and military commanders, had raised the British name and empire to the highest degree of splendor, power, and political importance.

In this state of the dignity and happiness of Great Britain, and in the midst of a successful war, king George the Third mounted the throne. To succeed to the crown in such a situation, was in itself a peculiar advantage; besides which there were many circumstances that concurred to recommend the young monarch to the universal affection of his subjects. The time of his life, having now attained the full age of manhood, being in his twenty-third year, naturally created a prejudice in his favour; and this prejudice was justly increased by the decency and regularity of his manners, and by the possession and the promise of many engaging virtues. There was, likewise, a disposition in all parties to unite in support of his government: for the attachment to the Stuart family was almost worn out; and those who retained the principles which had heretofore excluded them from the preferments



ments of the court, hoped that former distinctions would now be abolished. Even the circumstance of the king's being a native of this country, contributed not a little to his popularity. This, in itself, to a thinking mind, will appear a matter of no great moment; and especially when it is considered, that some of our best princes have been of foreign birth. However, in the enthusiasm naturally attendant on a new reign, it was likely to have its effect; and accordingly, it was artfully enough laid hold of, to captivate the minds of the people. The language, used by his majesty in his speech to his parliament, "born and educated in this country, I glory in the name of Briton," though it might almost seem to convey a reflection on our preceding monarchs, was repeated in rapture through the land; and was echoed back to the throne in many of the addresses which, according to custom, are presented from every quarter, on a fresh succession to the crown.

‘ The instant of the king's accession was distinguished by the earl of Bute's being sworn of the privy council, in conjunction with his royal highness the duke of York. This, perhaps, was no more than what might be expected, and, indeed, what ought to be done, from the station which his lordship had held, as groom of the stole, about his majesty's person, when prince of Wales. Nevertheless, speculative men would attend to it; and others would be looking up to a nobleman, who had been always understood to have great influence at Leicester-house, and who would probably arise to the plenitude of power.

‘ The first proceedings of the new reign did not indicate any great purposes of change in the measures of government. The king declared his resolution of prosecuting the war with vigour, and of supporting his allies; and public affairs continued apparently to be managed by Mr. Pitt, in connection with the duke of Newcastle and his party. The only considerable alterations that happened were the displacing of the earl of Holderness, in a few months, to make room for lord Bute's being introduced into the responsible office of secretary of state; and the removal of Mr. Legge, from the posts of under-treasurer and chancellor of the exchequer. The dismissal of Mr. Legge, who was an excellent minister of finance, and in high esteem with the public, gave occasion to some speculation and dissatisfaction. It was imputed, at the time, though without any just ground, to some disputes having arisen between him and Mr. Pitt concerning the supplies necessary for the service of the year. The real cause of his removal was the disgust he had excited at Savile-house in the preceding reign, by refusing to resign his own pretensions to the representation of the county of Hants, in order to give way to sir Simeon Stuart. This sacrifice had been urged upon him by lord Bute, supported by the authority of the prince of Wales; and when the transaction came to be known, it was much insisted upon as an indication of a disposition not favourable to Whiggism.

‘Not long after his majesty’s accession, a bill was passed which was very popular, and honourable to government; and that was, the act for extending the independence of the judges. The king himself went to the house, and in a speech to his parliament, recommended the consideration of this object. It had been enacted, in the reign of William the Third, that the judges should hold their commissions during their good behaviour; a wise provision, which prevented their being removeable, as had heretofore been the case at the will of the sovereign. However it was still understood that their offices were determined at the demise of the crown, or at the expiration of six months afterwards. By the present bill, their commissions were rendered perpetual, during their good behaviour, notwithstanding any such demise. We have reason to believe that Sir Michael Foster, at that time one of the justices of the King’s Bench, and a gentleman of eminent legal abilities, considered this act as unnecessary; it being his opinion that the design of it was virtually included in the act of King William. But, upon the whole, it was thought better, and we imagine wisely, that the matter should be settled by express statute.

The many arrangements and regulations that necessarily take place on a new reign, and the public ceremonies to which it gives birth, serve to excite the attention, and even to increase the loyalty and affection of the people. Besides the common circumstances which contributed to the splendor of his majesty’s accession to the crown, this splendor was not a little increased by his marriage. It was an event, likewise, in itself singularly happy. The invariably excellent character of the queen, whilst it hath secured the king’s personal felicity, hath obtained for her the universal esteem of the nation; and the numerous race of princes and princesses with which the royal nuptials have been blessed, will, we trust, add ornament and support to the throne, and afford farther stability to the general welfare. The admirable pattern set by their majesties in private life cannot be too greatly applauded. Whatever may be thought of the administration of public affairs, every friend to his country must regret, that such an example of good order, fidelity, virtue, and domestic harmony, hath been so little followed by those who ought to have looked up to it with reverence and emulation.

‘Whilst the attention of the court was so much employed by the marriage and coronation of the king and queen, and by other objects of ceremony and regulation, the great national concerns were not neglected. The war under the auspices of Mr. Pitt, was carried on with its usual vigour; though the events of 1761, were not altogether so splendid as those which had taken place in the two preceding years. Belleisle, the largest of the islands belonging to the French king in Europe, was taken; and the reduction of Pondicherry almost totally destroyed the power of that monarch in the East Indies. In the West Indies, Dominica was  
added



added to the acquisitions we had already made in that part of the world.

But, notwithstanding the success of our arms, the restoration of peace began to be a very desirable object. The large expences of the hostilities carried on by us in different quarters of the globe were felt by the public; though the amazing extent and prosperity of our commerce rendered them far less burthensome than they would otherwise have been. The drains of men and money occasioned by the German war and our continental connections, were particularly complained of; and by degrees excited much dissatisfaction. The inconsistency of Mr. Pitt's conduct, in this respect, with his former professions, became a frequent topic of declamation; and it was urged in so powerful a manner, as to make a deep impression on the minds of great numbers of persons. In 1761, the belligerent powers appeared sincerely desirous of coming to an accommodation. Accordingly, a negociation was opened between England and France; for which purpose Mr. Hans Stanley was sent to Paris, and Monsieur Buffy came to London. At first the prospect of terminating the war was very favourable; but, in the course of the negociation, fresh difficulties continually arose, which, at length, occasioned it to be entirely broken off. It is observable, that in the terms of peace prescribed by Mr. Pitt, he did not wholly exclude the French from North America. Louisiana was still to continue in their possession. Whether this was owing to that great man's superior sagacity, or to whatever cause, every friend to his country must regret that the treaty which was afterwards concluded, was not constructed on the same principles; as those calamitous events would in all probability have thereby been prevented, which have since shaken the British empire to its foundations.

It appeared, in a little time, that the war, instead of being put an end to, was likely to become more extensive. During the late negociation, Spain had displayed an evident partiality in favour of France; and, indeed, had interfered in a manner which afforded just cause of offence to the English court. The famous family compact was now forming, which hath been attended with consequences so hostile to Great Britain. Mr. Pitt, who had the fullest conviction and intelligence of the designs of the Spanish crown against us, insisted upon an immediate declaration of war against that crown. But in this he was opposed by all the cabinet council, excepting his brother-in-law, Earl Temple. The measure was deemed too bold and precipitate; and it was understood that even the king himself, if his council had agreed to it, would have found it extremely difficult to consent to their resolution. Mr. Pitt, being thus counteracted in a matter of such great consequence, resigned his post of secretary of state, and was succeeded by Lord Egremont. At his resignation, he was prevailed upon to accept a pension of three thousand pounds a-year, and a peerage for his lady. Nothing was

ever better merited than this pension; and yet the acceptance of it was injurious to his popularity.'

From the various merit, and judicious plan of this work, we entertain the most favourable expectations of its being well received by the public.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

### POETRY.

*The American War, a Poem; in Six Books. 8vo. 4s. sewed.*  
Hooper.

**A**Mongst the many evils brought on this country by the American war, Reviewers have too much cause to lament the multiplicity of bad productions, both in verse and prose, which it has occasioned. The poem before us consists of no less than six tedious books, and makes one large octavo volume. Every transaction is here faithfully recorded, and every battle and skirmish minutely described; though there is not, at the same time, a page worth reading, or a line worth repeating, throughout the whole. We will give our readers a *short* specimen, which, we dare say, they will think *long* enough, of this performance.

‘ More than one hour a solemn silence reign’d ;

Apparently Fort Sullivan was gain’d,

During the fight, the British soldiers stood

Inactive, and the hot engagement view’d !

Nor cou’d they now afford the least relief,

Altho’ each vex’d and disappointed chief

Seem’d anxious for the fight, and all express’d

A readiness to come to closest test :

No boats they had to waft them safely o’er !

Nor cou’d they wade towards that hostile shore !

At least, they had no cov’ring ships of war ;

They stuck aground on Carolina’s bar !

Thus, like the myrmidons of old they stood,

And the dread slaughter of the Britons view’d !

Lee join’d the colonists as they retir’d ;

Shame ! shame ! he cry’d, with indignation fir’d :

We cannot stand, they said, the cannonade,

The seamen ’gainst Fort Sullivan have made ;

Tho’ the three frigates still aground remain ;

(From whence perhaps they ne’er will float again ;)

Altho’ like wrecks we can perceive most clear,

Th’ Experiment and Bristol both appear !

Tho’ masts and rigging overboard are thrown !

And but as one their batter’d port-holes yawn !

Tho’



Tho' from their scoppers to the briny tide,  
 We see the purple marks of slaughter glide!  
 Altho' we've swept the Bristol's quarter deck!  
 They seem to feel no cool disheart'ning check!  
 But with fresh fury, guns and mortars ply,  
 Which storm to shun, we from our quarters fly!

No part of this poem, (for we have toiled through it all) is better than the lines above quoted. Is it not astonishing that any man so totally void of all poetical abilities as the author of the *American War*, could ever prevail on himself to publish such intolerable jargon?

*A Descriptive Poem, written in the West-Indies. By George Heriot. 4to. 2s. Doddsley.*

If any of our readers be fond of that species of writing,

‘Where smooth description holds the place of sense,

we recommend to them the perusal of this poem, in which all the peculiar phænomena, birds, plants, beasts, &c. of the Western world are accurately delineated. It may afford some instruction to the curious investigator of nature, but will not give much entertainment to a lover of the Muses, as the following specimen will sufficiently convince the impartial critic.

‘To thee, Flamingo, in descriptive course,  
 I turn my verse.—Straight, tall, majestic bird!  
 With thy deep crimson plumage, mixed with white,  
 Adorn'd in lustre gay; and thy long neck,  
 And ruddy legs, join'd to thy full-form'd breast,  
 Approaching nearly to the height of man.  
 How singular thy bill! thy tongue how strange!  
 Set with a double row of sharp hook'd teeth.  
 With legs and neck outstretch'd, thou wing'st the air,  
 In slow and heavy flight, and when in crowds,  
 In order regular ye move.—Next of th' aquatic kind,  
 With slender, crooked necks, the Galdings view;  
 Some deck'd with snow-white feathers, some with grey,  
 And some with fable blue, and red-caped crown.’

This may, for ought we know, be a very just and exact description of these extraordinary birds; but the whole would perhaps sound full as well in plain prose, especially as the lines have nothing in them very pleasing or poetical.—We have afterwards a minute account of the millepedes, tarantula, saw-fly, fire-fly, and twenty other wonderful insects.—Walk in, ladies and gentlemen, and see them all for the small price of two shillings; and if you are not satisfied with our author's description, and wish to view the originals, you have only to step into a vessel and cross the Atlantic.

*A familiar Epistle from a Cat at the Qu—n's P—l—ce, to Edmund Burke, Esq. on his Motion for the better Regulation of his Majesty's Civil Establishment, &c.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Kearsly.

It is a common proverbial saying that, *a cat may look at a king*, which we by no means wish to dispute the truth of; but it does not follow that because she may *look at*, she has therefore a right to *abuse* him, which seems to be the design of this very indifferent performance, which has nothing to recommend it but a great quantity of virulence and scurrility in most intolerable metre, as the reader will see by the few following lines, where, speaking of the American war, puffs puffs thus:

— it makes one quite frantic  
To think how things go t'other side the Atlantic!  
Where a war's carry'd on between friend and friend,  
Which, whoever shall conquer, must fatally end.  
Oh! curse on the authors! aloud exclaim'd he,  
That they have their reward, heav'n grant I may see;  
To their much injur'd country victims be led,  
With B— and the R-b-c-n lord, at their head.  
Such victims alone the gods can appease,  
Sweet peace can restore, and the people well please.  
As he utter'd these words, a spontaneous sigh  
Burst forth from my breast, and Amen did I cry.  
That moment, my principles totally chang'd,  
And all my ideas were newly arrang'd.  
I now feel for my country; and when I compare  
The past with the present, I cannot forbear  
Sincerely to join in the wish of my friend  
That signal dishonour and some fatal end,  
The authors of this sad reverse may attend.  
And whenever my r-y-l m-ster appears,  
As I creep along by him, I always shed tears;  
To think what a tract from his empire is rent,  
Thro' his servants perverseness and mismanagement:  
With the loss we've sustain'd in all branches of trade,  
Ever since the impolitic breach has been made:  
Then again I reflect on our numerous foes—  
What will be the event of it God only knows.

The remark in the last line is certainly a very true one, though neither sagacious nor poetical. The event of this poem may be much more easily foreseen; for, unlike the American war, it will do nobody any harm, will very soon be at an end, and, in a few days, be totally forgotten.

*The Library. A Poem.* 4to. 2s. Doddsley.

A vein of good sense and philosophical reflection runs through this little performance, which distinguishes it from most modern poems, though the subject is not sufficiently interesting to recommend.



commend it to general attention. The rhymes are correct, and the versification smooth and harmonious. The author ranges his books scientifically, and carries us through natural philosophy, physic, romance, history, &c.—What he says of physical writers is not less true than severe; their aim, says he, is glorious.

‘ But man, who knows no good unmix’d and pure,  
Oft finds a poison where he sought a cure;  
For grave deceivers lodge their labours here,  
And cloud the science they pretend to clear:  
Scourges for sin the solemn tribe are sent;  
Like fire and storms, they call us to repent;  
But storms subside, and fires forget to rage;  
These are eternal scourges of the age:  
’Tis not enough that each terrific hand  
Spreads desolation round a guilty land;  
But, train’d to ill, and harden’d by its crimes,  
Their pen relentless kills through future times.’

These lines are manly, nervous, and poetical. We were still more pleased with the following description of romance, which is full of fancy and spirit.

‘ Hence, ye prophane! I feel a former dread,  
A thousand visions float around my head;  
Hark! hollow blasts through empty courts resound,  
And shadowy forms with staring eyes stalk round;  
See! moats and bridges, walls and castles rise,  
Ghosts, fairies, dæmons, dance before our eyes;  
Lo! magic verse inscrib’d on golden gate,  
And bloody hand that beckons on to fate:  
“ And who art thou, thou little page, unfold?  
Say doth thy lord my Claribel with hold?  
Go tell him strait, fir knight, thou must resign  
Thy captive queen—for Claribel is mine.”  
Away he flies; and now for bloody deeds,  
Black suits of armour, masks, and foaming steeds;  
The giant falls—his recreant throat I seize,  
And from his corslet take the massy keys;  
Dukes, lords, and knights in long procession move,  
Releas’d from bondage with my virgin love;—  
She comes, she comes in all the charms of youth,  
Unequall’d love and unsuspected truth!  
‘ Ah! happy he who thus in magic themes,  
O’er worlds bewitch’d, in early rapture dreams,  
Where wild enchantment waves her potent wand,  
And Fancy’s beauties fill her fairy land;  
Where doubtful objects strange desires excite,  
And fear and ignorance afford delight.

‘ But lost, for ever lost, to me these joys,  
Which Reason scatters, and which Time destroys;

Too dearly bought, maturer Judgment calls  
 My busy'd mind from tales and madrigals;  
 My doughty giants all are slain or fled,  
 And all my knights, blue, green, and yellow, dead;  
 No more the midnight fairy tribe I view  
 All in the merry moonshine tipling dew;  
 Ev'n the last lingering fiction of the brain,  
 The church-yard ghost, is now at rest again;  
 And all these wayward wanderings of my youth,  
 Fly Reason's power, and shun the light of Truth.'

The reader will meet with many other passages in this poem that will give him pleasure in the perusal. It is observable, that the author in his account of all the numerous volumes in every science, has never characterised or entered into the merits of any particular writer in either of them, though he had so fair an opportunity, from the nature of his subject: this, however, for reasons best known to himself, he has studiously avoided.

*The Brothers, an Eclogue.* By the Hon. Charles John Fielding.  
 4to. 1s. Walter.

At a time when the nobility of this kingdom seem not over anxious of obtaining any character in the world of letters, and are very seldom guilty of publication, we are glad, for the credit of the nation, to see a promising young man of rank step forth as a volunteer in the service, and make, considering his youth and inexperience, a figure so respectable. The little poem before us, written by the honourable Mr. Charles John Fielding, younger son to the earl of Denbigh, though not a first rate performance, is by no means destitute of poetical merit. It is inscribed to his elder brother, lord viscount Fielding, and recites a conversation that passed between them on their several destinations in life, the elder in the military line, the younger (our author) destined probably for the church, and fond of rural amusements. They rally each other on their different taste and dispositions: Damon is the contemplative youth, and Dorylas the foldier, who thus laughs at the philosopher's tranquillity.

' Indulge thy dream! in indolence reclin'd,  
 Wooe the soft waving of the western wind!  
 To moralizing brooks incline thine ear!  
 Pipe thy sweet lays to rocks that cannot hear!—  
 — ' Dream on!—Be mine with martial rage to glow!  
 To hurl defiance on the trembling foe!  
 Be mine with this good faulchion to engage,  
 "Where the fight burns, and where the thickest rage."  
 Be mine to force th' astonish'd troops to run  
 Before this look, like mists before the sun!'

To this Damon replies:

' Hence to the war! Indulge thy savage ear  
 With the wild shrieks of comfortless Despair!

With



With eager joy drink in the widow's cry!  
 Feast on the frantic mother's agony!  
 Hark! hark! "My son! my murder'd son!" she calls,  
 Then fainting o'er the bleeding body falls.  
 "My blooming hero shall not die," (she cries)  
 And strains him to her breast—her hero dies.  
 Enjoy her pangs! with rapture see her tear  
 The rev'rend honours of her silver hair!  
 Enjoy her pangs! and let each bursting groan,  
 That heaves her heart with madness, sooth thy own.

These lines, though the sentiments are common and familiar, are smooth and harmonious. The expression *to run before a look*, and to *drink in the widow's cry*, with a few others to be met with in this poem, we could wish to see expunged. A first essay, however, should be always treated with indulgence; and to exercise the severity of criticism on the efforts of so young a muse as Mr. Fielding's, would be inhumanity. From this specimen of our honourable writer's genius and abilities, we have reason to hope that he will hereafter produce something well deserving of the public approbation. It would be injustice not to add, that the tenderness and fraternal affection running through this poem, the indisputable marks of a good and well-disposed mind, must palliate its defects, and give a lustre to its beauties, in the opinion of every feeling and intelligent reader.

*Poems for the Vase at Bath Easton, &c.* By a Derbyshire Highlander. 4to. 2s. 6d. Rivington.

These poems were written, as we are informed in the title-page, for the *vase at lady Miller's*. The production, we suppose, of some unsuccessful candidate for the myrtle wreath, who has taken this method of arraigning the taste of the Bath Easton judges, and made his appeal to the public, who, we are afraid, will confirm their decree, and once more consign his verses to oblivion. They seem to be the hasty effusion of a cold and incorrect writer, who throws out his undigested thoughts on any subject, without judgment or selection, and clothes them in very slovenly and prosaic numbers. In the verses on *speculation*, the theme given out at Bath Easton, in 1779, and which our author absurdly calls *an epigram* (of ten pages), he gives his readers this agreeable promise:

'Hail speculation! hail thou theme sublime,  
 Thou best of parents to the sons of rhyme!  
 Descend to earth, and visit my poor cell,  
 Where slow-placed hebetude and dullness dwell.'

From these habitations of *hebetude* and *dullness* we cannot expect much entertainment, and are not therefore surprised to meet, a little farther on, with the following specimen of our author's wit and humour:

Make way—the lawyer comes with formal face !  
 Screw'd up and wrinkled like his knotted case ;  
 With tainted bag, that holds volcanic flame  
 To burn our happiness, and raise our shame ;  
 To fright mankind, and aggravate their fears,  
 And set the world together by the ears :  
 Full on his head, his patch as black as sin,  
 Shews the dark grumous state his brain is in ;  
 Or perhaps denotes, his pleading by command,  
 That there the devil lays his ebon hand !  
 This harpy's plan is only to embroil,  
 And nurture strife, and speculate for spoil.

This is equalled, if not excelled, by his description of the doctor :

Look here again ! the doctor now appears,  
 His pompous wig envelopes both his ears ;  
 Seize his fine cane to guarantee my pate,  
 And I will all his mummary relate.  
 Burn first his wig—this robs him of his strength ;  
 Then make him write his nonsense at full length :  
 As Dalilah poor Samson erst did shave,  
 Shave close this puffing, peruke-pated knave ;  
 Condemn laud. liq. merc. dulc. and cort. peru.  
 Bid him prescribe a physic that is new :  
 If he refuse, then recipe the tote,  
 And, to a scruple, pour them down his throat.

The rest of the poems are of a piece with this : the author talks of *yesty tides, ablucnt waves, daisy-dappled ground, dædal scenes, sugared notes, rubified blood, &c. &c. &c.* We will not therefore trouble our readers with any more quotations ; but will conclude with our author's own opinion of this work, in a letter to his bookseller, *Mr. Roome of Derby*, prefixed to the poems :—‘ I blush exceedingly (says he) at the very thought of your ushering into a world, that has now acquired the most correct and just taste for every thing that is elegant in the arts and sciences, a *parcel of rhimes which are very much below mediocrity.*’ With this opinion of E. B. L. the Derbyshire Highlander, who must certainly best know the merit of his own works, we entirely coincide, and hope that no future *vases* at Bath, or elsewhere, may lead him into the like temptation, or induce him to send any more works to Mr. Roome, ‘ † either as a substratum for apples, or for a sacrifice to Sterquilinus, or Cloacina.’

*An Essay on Prejudice ; a Poetical Epistle to the Hon. C. J. Fox.*  
 4to. 1s. Faulder.

Prejudice, in the proper signification of the word, undoubtedly means a hasty determination in any point, without previous ex-

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† See the prefatory letter to Mr. Roome.



amination, as the etymology and derivation sufficiently indicate, and consequently must be misunderstood (as it frequently is) when applied to general and received opinions, which are usually founded on mature judgment and deliberate attention. The author of this epistle has, amongst many others, adopted this misconception of the term, as our readers will be convinced of, when we inform them that the *prejudices* which this gentleman means to guard his friend against, are nothing less than the immortality of the soul, and the certainty of a future state; *prejudices* which our author, in the metre of Sternhold and Hopkins, endeavours most warmly, though not very poetically, to extirpate. That his arguments are neither very new nor very cogent, will appear from the following lines.

“ T’ anatomise the soul is vain;  
Vain too all human art,  
To trace it reasoning with the brain,  
Or throbbing with the heart.

“ Had it an essence of its own,  
Nor part of body grew,  
Why do the pangs that wound the one,  
Affect the other too?”

“ What is it then? ’tis action, thought,  
Sensation, passion, breath—  
With us alike to reason brought,  
It with us sinks to death.”

Such is our author’s religion? let us hear his philosophy.

“ Though modified in various shapes,  
Matter remains the same :  
Trees, fossils, minerals—men or apes—  
It differs but in name.

’Tis the same animating feed,  
The same prolific fire,  
Gives dogs their instinct, horses speed,  
Or warms Achilles’ ire.”

Such religion and such philosophy naturally take shelter in the Epicurean system.

*Dona præsentis cape lætus horæ.*

*Let us eat and drink, for to-morrow we die.*

A resolution to which his political Pylades, to whom it is addressed, will probably have no objection. We are not therefore surprised that the poem should thus conclude.

“ The present’s thine—fate rules the rest—  
No future terrors fear;  
Enjoy the fleeting hour; be blest—  
And make thy heaven here.”

We

We cannot but be of opinion that the measure made use of in this little piece is ill adapted to a subject so serious and important, and the poetry too indifferent to do any mischief; from such antagonists, therefore, religion has little to fear; Christianity may say in the words of Terence;

Utinam sic fient, male qui mihi volunt!

*Poems by Ab. Portal. 8vo 5s. sewed, Kearsly.*

The poetical character of this writer is sufficiently known to the generality of our readers by his former publications, *Olindo* and *Sophronia*, a tragedy; *War*, an ode; *Innocence*, a poetical essay; and four *Nuptial Elegies*. These, and about twenty other pieces on various subjects, compose the present collection. Among those that might be mentioned with applause, is an elegy, entitled *Cynthia*, the production of an ingenious lady, whose name, we are told, is Mrs. H—lt—n. The author has dedicated his Poems to R. B. Sheridan, esq. in some complimentary verses, which have a considerable share of the poetic spirit.

*An Enquiry into the Authenticity of the Poems ascribed to Ossian, By W. Shaw. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray.*

Soon after those poems were first published, doubts of their authenticity were entertained by several persons, particularly by Dr. Johnson; who, in his *Tour into the Hebrides*, has endeavoured to support his opinion with a variety of arguments. Since that time, the authenticity of those poems has been no less zealously asserted by Mr. Smith and Mr. M<sup>c</sup>Nicol; the latter of whom even affirmed, that the original, written in the Galic language and character, might be seen by any person who should apply to John Mackenzie, esq. of the Temple, Secretary to the Highland Society. The author of this Enquiry labours to confirm the opinion entertained by Dr. Johnson; in support of which he specifies a number of circumstances, relative to the internal and external evidence of the authenticity of the poems. He informs us, that in spring 1778, he set out for the Highlands and Hebrides, to collect vocables for a Galic Dictionary; resolved also to make enquiry, in this excursion, concerning the Poems of Ossian: that, after the most industrious search, he could not obtain from the inhabitants any oral specimen of Ossian's Poems; nor had he greater success in all his enquiries after manuscripts: that such as he had heard of the former, or seen of the latter, were only the compositions of the fifteenth century. He adds, that, on his return to London, he waited on Mr. Mackenzie in the Temple; when looking over the volumes in manuscript, which, he says, are written in the Irish dialect and character, on the subject of Irish and Highland genealogy, he could find in them no compositions of Ossian.

Such



Such is the evidence produced by this writer against the authenticity of Ossian's Poems. His arguments are drawn up with a considerable degree of plausibility: but, in respect to facts, he has given us no other testimony than his own unsupported assertion. This circumstance merits the greater regard, as one anecdote which he mentions relative to Dr. Ferguson, has been positively contradicted by that gentleman, in the public papers.

## NOVELS.

*The History of the Hon. Mrs. Rosemont, and Sir Henry Cardigan.* 2 vols. small 8vo. 5s. sewed. Hookham.

Though this novel be founded on some improbable circumstances, and the narrative be, in several places, destitute of natural connection, it discovers many traces of a lively fancy; the characters are not only well supported, but happily contrasted with each other; and the whole, if we except some grammatical inaccuracies, is written in an easy and agreeable manner.

*Masquerades; or What you will.* 4 vols. Small 8vo. 12s. Bew.

This novel, the production of the author of *Eliza Warwick*, may justly lay claim to entertainment, which is, however sometimes precluded by an unpleasing prolixity. But its principal blemishes are a levity of sentiment that occasionally breaks forth in opposition to moral restraint.

*Distressed Virtue, or the History of Miss Harriet Nelson.* 3 vols. 12mo. 9s. Noble.

Virtue in distress is an interesting object; but its effects are totally frustrated by the incapacity of this writer.

## DIVINITY.

*Sermons preached before the University of Cambridge.* By Peter Stephen Goddard, D. D. 8vo. 4s. boards. Rivington.

In an academical pulpit, it is expected that a preacher should rather display his ingenuity than his piety. When we therefore see a volume of sermons, lately preached before one of our universities, we are led to expect, not a collection of merely practical discourses, arguments in support of self-evident propositions, and instructions adapted to the capacities of old women; but some learned and judicious illustrations of scripture, some important doctrines of Christianity rationally explained and defended, some new enquiries, some curious disquisitions, or, if the subjects should be trite and exhausted, some specimens of genuine oratory.

Dr. Goddard has given us fourteen sermons on the following subjects: A true and zealous Christian, the greatest and best of Characters; Eternal Life clearly and fully revealed by the Gospel only;

only; Ridicule the Test of Truth; the Freedom of Man's Will consistent with the Grace of God; our Lord's Treatment of the Woman of Canaan explained and justified; Needless Curiosity; a Day of Grace and a Day of Wrath; Sins of Infirmary and Sins of Presumption; Covetousness Idolatry; Criminal Compliances with prevailing Customs; Hezekiah's Behaviour on receiving the Message from God by Isaiah; Duty of Prayer; Duty of the Preacher and his Hearers; Adoratio Dei, Concio ad Clerum.

In these discourses the learned and speculative reader will find but a moderate entertainment. The author's manner of writing is plain, simple, and unaffected. But the generality of his observations are trite and obvious; and his style not always correct. The following are some of those verbal inaccuracies, which we have observed in this volume: 'The best rules, though *never* [ever] so well applied,' p. 242.—'Our hearts desire is that our people *might* [may] be saved,' p. 243.—'What is *spoke* [spoken] to them,' p. 236.—'The advantages he *lays* under' [lies under] p. 248.

It may be said, that these are small and inconsiderable defects; but we see no reason, why ungrammatical expressions should be less exceptionable in the English language than in Latin or Greek.

*The Necessity of Religion to National Prosperity. A Sermon preached at the Assizes, holden at Hertford, on Monday, 30th of July, 1781. By the Rev. Ludlow Holt, LL.D. 4to. 1s. Rivington.*

The author of this discourse, with great propriety and energy, represents the necessity of religion to national prosperity.

*A new Translation with a Paraphrase of some Parts of Ecclesiastes. 8vo. 1d. Lowndes.*

Whether this is only a specimen, or all the translator means to publish, we are not informed. The translation differs very considerably from the common version; but the author enters into no critical enquiries. His performance appears to disadvantage in its present form, which is, with respect to paper and type, no better than the History of Robin Hood, or Tom Thumb.

*Hymns in Prose for Children, 12mo. 1s. Johnson.*

Two small volumes were published in 1778; the first intitled, Lessons for Children from two to three years old; the second, Lessons for Children of three years old. In 1779, two other volumes were published on the same plan; viz. Lessons for Children of three years old, part II. Lessons for Children from three to four years old \*.

\* Two similar productions were published about the beginning of the present year, by other hands. See Crit. Rev. Jan. 1781.

This



This volume is a continuation of the former, and is intended to give the young reader a proper idea of the Creator and his works. It is the production of Mrs. Barbauld, and is written with that delicacy of style and sentiment which appears in all the compositions of that ingenious lady.

## CONTROVERSIAL.

*The General Doctrine of Toleration applied to the particular Case of Free Communion.* By Robert Robinson. 8vo. 1s. Buckland.

The purport of this tract is to shew, that it is just and right, and agreeable to the revealed will of Christ, that baptist churches should admit into their fellowship such persons as desire admission on profession of faith and repentance; though they refuse to be baptized by immersion, because they sincerely believe they have been rightly baptized by sprinkling in their infancy.

We should consider this writer as a rational advocate for religious toleration, did not his invectives against infant baptism, by sprinkling, induce us to believe, that he is tinged with a little of the old leaven; and not entirely free from a superstitious attachment to the mere forms and ceremonies of religion.

*Remarks on Mr. Lindsey's Dissertation upon praying to Christ. Also a Second Letter to the rev. Mr. Jebb, (now Dr. Jebb)* 8vo. 2s. Crowder.

In the Dissertation, which has given occasion to these Remarks, Mr. Lindsey endeavours to shew the unlawfulness of all religious addresses to Jesus Christ. He therefore asserts, that Christ never taught men to worship or pray to himself. The author of this tract allows the truth of this assertion; but contends, that our Saviour has declared, 'there would be honour due to him by his Father's grant, in such language, as may comprehend supplication to him, as well as any other instance of respect.'—Mr. Lindsey maintains, that the religious worship of Christ, in the offering up of prayer to him, is not deducible from his character, office, or any divine power ascribed to him. This writer, on the other hand, alleges, that it is deducible from what the scripture says of his exaltation as a prince and a saviour, to give repentance and remission of sins, of his being the head over all things to the church, of his having the keys of hades, &c.—Mr. Lindsey observes, that Christ has entirely precluded the offering of religious worship to himself, or any other person whatever, by always praying to his heavenly Father, and uniformly directing others to pray to him alone. Our author insists, that it is false reasoning to say, because Christ gave his disciples a model for their supplications to the Father, that he himself is never to be invoked; that he has given his approbation to this divine precept, 'Thou shalt worship the Lord thy God, and him only shalt thou serve;' and yet he says to his disciples, Joh. xii. 26. 'If any man serve me,

me, him will my Father honour :’ so that it does not follow, because Jehovah is only to be served, that no service is to be paid to Jesus Christ.—Mr. Lindsey remarks, that the apostles never teach, that prayer was to be offered to Christ. This writer replies, that the apostles have given us an example of calling upon Christ in their own conduct, and have spoken of it in such a manner, as sufficiently to discover, that they looked upon it as a thing fit and laudable in their converts. He produces a variety of texts in proof of this assertion, and concludes, ‘that it becomes us to acquiesce in, and behave suitably to such direction, as is offered by God concerning our duty, though it may not be so full and copious, as we might have expected, or delivered in so express and formal a manner, as we might have looked for.’

This writer appears to be a man of learning, actuated by a sincere desire, that the point in controversy may be fully and fairly discussed.

*An Examination of Thelyphthora, on the Subject of Marriage. By John Palmer. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.*

The author of Thelyphthora has laid it down as a principle, in his system of polygamy, that ‘the personal union of the man and woman is the only marriage ordinance appointed by God. This notion the writer of the present treatise endeavours to refute, by shewing, that the first pair were united in a solemn manner by the Creator, who brought the woman to the man, presented her to him, and gave them a blessing, before any personal union commenced ; that our Saviour plainly alludes to a marriage ceremony among the antediluvians, when he says, ‘they married wives, and were given in marriage ;’ that a marriage-ceremony was required in the patriarchal times, as appears from the case of Shechem, who entreated his father to procure him Dinah to be his wife, after her violation : that, under the Mosaic dispensation, the same form was continued ; and that, according to Mr. M.’s own acknowledgement, betrothed persons were considered as husband and wife before any other connection took place.

This writer takes notice of some absurd consequences attending the Madanean system ; such as these : that, upon the principles therein advanced, there can be no such crime as fornication ; that an unbetrothed maiden cannot be debauched ; that a personal connection with her is an act of marriage ; that a rape is a religious rite ; and that a man may seduce as many women, provided they are disengaged, as he chooses, &c.

If this publication meets with a favourable reception, the author designs to pursue the subject.



## MISCELLANEOUS.

*The Adventures of a Hackney Coach, vol. II. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Kearsly.*

This is as execrable a hack as any private gentleman would wish to be drove in; being nothing but a heap of uninteresting ill-written adventures, in a pompous and turgid style. The author awkwardly affects the pathetic and sentimental manner of the celebrated Tristram Shandy, and endeavours to imitate what is inimitable.

*Ortho and Rutha: a Dramatic Tale. By a Lady. Small 8vo. 3s. Bew.*

The author's design in this Tale is to inculcate such truths as are of eternal and essential importance to human life: 1. that its whole economy is superintended and regulated by a wise and beneficent Providence, which renders its most gloomy vicissitudes and adverse occurrences, ultimately productive of the highest felicity, not only to communities, but even to individuals; 2. that every external advantage, which man can either acquire or possess, is laborious in its attainment, faithless in its pretences, and unsatisfactory in its enjoyment; 3. that piety and virtue, improved and cultivated, constitute the supreme happiness of an intelligent creature.

This Tale is written in a style, which resembles blank verse. The lessons of morality, which it suggests, are edifying and important.—We shall place it on the same shelf with the 'Death of Abel.'

*The Unfortunate Caledonian in England; or, Genuine Memoirs of an impressed young Gentleman, in the Year 1779. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Wade.*

Whether these Memoirs of an Impressed young Gentleman be genuine or fictitious, they certainly afford entertainment. The incidents are interesting; the characters well delineated; and several places accurately described. The narrative is also frequently enlivened with agreeable pieces of poetry. From the ingenuity which the author discovers, we regret the disaster he has experienced; and are glad to find, that, after a variety of fortune, he has at last attained the accomplishment of his wishes.

*An Introduction to English Grammar; to which is annexed a Treatise on Rhetorick. By Joshua Story. The Second Edition with Additions. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Evans.*

We have given a favourable account of this Grammar in our Review for January 1779.—The present edition is improved in several places, and enlarged by a Treatise on Rhetoric, collected from the most eminent authors on that subject.

*Considerations on the Propriety and Expediency of the Clergy acting in the Commission of the Peace.* 8vo. 6d. Johnson.

The author of these Considerations acknowledges himself to be both a clergyman and a magistrate; and he endeavours to procure the same distinction for his reverend brethren, whom he represents as particularly qualified, on various accounts, for acting in the commission of the peace. We know not what peculiar circumstances may concur to render this gentleman highly useful in his double capacity; but should be of opinion, that the clerical duties alone are, in general, sufficient to employ the attention of a faithful and diligent pastor. To invest the clergy, therefore, with a judicial office, would seem to be a measure incompatible with the right discharge of their original function; and we may add, that the union of civil and ecclesiastical authority is far from being an alliance favourable to the meek and humble spirit which is the essential ornament of a Christian teacher.

*A Letter to the Jury who convicted Mr. Shelly, the Silversmith.*  
By Robert Holloway. 8vo. 1s. Brewman.

Prefixed to this letter is a dedication to the lord mayor, in which it must be acknowledged that the author, who, it seems, is an attorney, is far from rendering his meaning perfectly intelligible. The purpose of the letter is to evince, that Mr. Shelly experienced rigorous treatment in being convicted of the criminal charge for which he was indicted.

*The Southampton Guide: Or, an Account of the present State of that Town. Its Trade, Public Buildings, Charitable Foundations, Churches, Fairs, Markets, Play-houses, Assembly Rooms, Baths, &c. together with a Description of the Isle of Wight, Netley Abbey, Lymington, Lyndhurst, Redbridge, New Forest, Romley, Broadlands, Bellevue, Bevis Mount, St. Dennis, Titchfield, &c. Interspersed with many curious and useful Particulars. A new Edition,* 12mo. 1s. Law.

The editor of this little Directory has improved the present edition, so as to render it a proper pocket-companion for the visitants of Southampton.

*The Question-book: Or, a Practical Introduction to Arithmetic. Containing a great Variety of Examples in all the Fundamental Rules.* By Thomas Molineux. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Bathurst.

To this short introduction to arithmetic the author has added a Key, containing the answers to the Questions. The answers to the questions will certainly lessen the labour of the teacher; as the author tells us he hath experienced in his own school.